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ABSTRACT

Many countries have recently launched massive programs to promote nation-wide adult literacy, but while these efforts have been commendable, it has been observed that neo-literates who acquire literacy through such programs have great difficulty in retaining it; hence an urgent need to develop suitable programs of post-literacy and continuing education has been felt. In 1980, Unesco's Institute for Education initiated a major research project designed to respond to this need. The research was carried out within the broad framework of lifelong education, and resulted in the series of case studies of which this volume is a part. The volume presents six national case studies from the Asian Region. They are: "Literacy and Continuing Education in China" (Li Jiyuan); "Learning Strategies for Post-Literacy and Continuing Education at the Basic Level in India" (D. V. Sharma); "The Development of Learning Strategies for Post-Literacy and Continuing Education of the Neo-Literates in the Perspective of Lifelong Education in Indonesia" (A. Iskandar et al.); "Learning Strategies for Post-Literacy and Continuing Education of the Neo-Literates in Nepal" (L. N. Belbase); "The Development of Learning Strategies for Post-Literacy and Continuing Education of Neo-Literates in the Perspective of Lifelong Education in Thailand" (N. Suntornpithug); and "Learning Strategies for Literacy Follow-up and Complementary Education in the Context of Lifelong Education in Vietnam" (Le Son). Each case study provides general background and context information, discusses general issues and policies, and describes specific techniques and/or programs for literacy, post-literacy, and continuing education. (YLB)

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LEARNING STRATEGIES FOR POST-LITERACY AND CONTINUING EDUCATION IN CHINA, INDIA, INDONESIA, NEPAL, THAILAND AND VIETNAM

R.H. DAVE, A. OUANE, D.A. PERERA (editors)

With contributions from
LI JIYUAN, D.V. SHARMA, A. ISKANDAR, U.S. POMBING, P. SUDRAJAT, A. SANTOSA, TRIYADI, A. DJABAR, SUYONO, L.N. BELBASE, N. SUNTORNPITHUG, and LE SON

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Outcomes of an International Research Project of the Unesco Institute for Education organized in co-operation with the German Commission for Unesco, Bonn

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FOREWORD

Since 1972, the Unesco Institute for Education (UIE) has been conducting basic as well as developmental research on the concept of lifelong education and its implications for educational reforms and development. The activities of the Institute have been specifically focused on practical implications of this concept for the goals and content of education, learning strategies, evaluation and teacher education, covering the broad spectrum of formal, nonformal and informal systems of learning. The needs of both developed and developing countries have been kept in view throughout the planning and conduct of these activities.

One of the important areas of application of the principles of lifelong education in developing countries is related to the programmes of post-literacy and continuing education. This book is an outcome of some of the Institute's work in this particular field.

It is important to note in this connection that a large number of developing countries have recently launched massive programmes of adult literacy on a national scale, complementary to efforts towards implementing the universalization of primary education for children of school-going age. These are indeed commendable efforts towards the democratization of education despite the problems of financial and other resources.

It has, however, been observed that those neo-literate adults who acquire literacy through such programmes have great difficulty in retaining it, and some of them lapse back into illiteracy if timely follow-up measures are not taken. The same

phenomenon of reversal has also been observed in the case of children who drop out of the formal school system prematurely. On the other hand, literacy is considered an important step towards the process of lifelong education and the achievement of a better quality of life, not only for every individual but also for the family and the community. Hence, one important question that needs to be tackled is: *How does one enable neo-literate adults and out-of-school children to retain their literacy skills?* It is essential that those who once acquire basic skills of reading, writing and computation make them permanent by reinforcement through post-literacy programmes.

The post-literacy programmes, however, are not just remedial measures to ensure the retention and stabilization of literacy skills. Especially when they are developed in the context of lifelong education and with the purpose of improving the quality of life of the individuals and their collectives, they call for the continuation of learning in a flexible manner, utilizing the recently acquired literacy skills, and for the application of this learning to the larger processes of development. Thus, what is required is to develop programmes of post-literacy and continuing education to fulfil three major goals, namely, (i) *retention* and *stabilization* of literacy skills, (ii) *continuation* of learning beyond initial literacy skills, and (iii) *application* of this learning for improving various aspects of personal, social and vocational life. Again, one of the most critical questions is: *How can this be done?*

In the light of these and other similar factors, the need to develop suitable programmes of post-literacy and continuing education has been keenly felt in all the countries engaged in literacy and mass education programmes. Responding to this situation, in 1980 the UIE initiated a major project of research and research-based training on the Development of Learning Strategies for Post-literacy and Continuing Education of Neo-literates in the Perspective of Lifelong Education.

In this respect, the broad framework of lifelong education proved very valuable, for example,

(1) in enabling programmes of literacy and post-literacy to be viewed as a *continuum* within *total* education aimed at reducing inequality and at increasing the degree of *democratization* in education;

(2) in advocating the acquisition of post-literacy and continuing education through not only the *formal* system but also the *nonformal* system and *informal* learning opportunities created by print as well as non-print media of both modern and traditional types;

(3) in emphasizing that learning strategies should be *flexible* and provide *alternative approaches* to suit individuals and their groups in their local conditions;

(4) in ensuring that learning strategies pay due attention to certain *groups with special needs* such as women, youth, etc.;

(5) in encouraging an increasing degree of *independent* and *self-directed* learning;

(6) in insisting that learning should be *integrated* with the learner's personal, social and occupational domains of life.

Within this wider educational perspective, a series of case studies was undertaken in collaboration with field workers from various countries. The concrete experiences thus gathered from different regions, provided valuable insights in identifying and categorizing possible learning strategies and techniques. These studies also proved helpful in understanding the scope as well as limitations of different approaches and programmes and considering pre-conditions and possible obstacles to be kept in view in designing and implementing appropriate learning strategies. In order to disseminate as quickly as possible the research findings and related information, a series of international and regional orientation seminars were organized. These research-based orientation programmes were held for key personnel working directly in this field at the national level and having the responsibility of developing and implementing programmes of literacy, post-literacy and continuing education in their own countries. The case study authors were involved as resource persons in these orientation seminars and their draft reports used as basic learning materials. The case studies, revised after feedback from the orientation seminars, are now being published in a UIE series on Post-literacy Studies, for wider dissemination among policy-makers, practitioners and researchers involved in this field.

The first volume in the series, presents a broad synthesis of different case studies as well as contributions made in various forms by the participants and faculty members of the international and regional orientation seminars conducted in the framework of UIE's integrated project of research and research-based training. In addition, it includes two international approach papers prepared by two eminent specialists, Mr. Anil Bordia and Professor Harbans S. Bhola, members of the international research network set up in the initial phase of this project. The subsequent volumes contain national case studies. The present volume, the fourth in the series, presents case studies from the Asian Region, namely from the People's Republic of China, India, Indonesia, Nepal, Thailand, and Vietnam. We are grateful to their authors, Messrs Li Jiyuan (P.R. of China), D.V. Sharma (India), Anwas Iskandar, Umberto Sihombing and their Associates (Indonesia), Lekh Nath Belbase (Nepal), Niched Suntornpithug (Thailand), and Le Son (Vietnam). We are also grateful to their respective organisations and institutions which extended active co-operation to UIE through their specialists. To all other researchers who prepared case studies as well as to all participants of different seminars, we are extremely thankful.

Our special thanks are due to the Ministry of Culture and Social Services, Government of Kenya; to the Ministry of Education and Culture, Government of India; and to the Ministry of Education, Government of Venezuela; and to their respective National Commissions for Unesco not only for hosting the regional orientation seminars but also for providing support to these programmes in many ways. Likewise, we have enjoyed working with the dynamic local organizational teams set up by our co-ordinators Mr. David Macharia in Kenya, Mr. D.V. Sharma in India and Professor Antonio Valbuena Paz in Venezuela, and we wish to record our deep sense of appreciation and gratitude for their valuable co-operation.

Without the generous extra-budgetary support received by the Institute from the Federal Republic of Germany through the German Commission for Unesco, Bonn this project, involving many researchers and participants from a large number of developing countries in different parts of the world would not have been possible. We are deeply indebted to the Federal German Government and the German Commission for Unesco (DUK) for supporting this important project. Dr. Hans Meinel, Secretary-General of the DUK took personal interest in this endeavour and provided active support and help right from the beginning of this project. Dr. Hans-Wolf Rissom from the DUK took an active part in

various aspects of the project, and made a valuable contribution. Ms Judith Schwefringhaus also extended help in the organizational and other aspects of both research and orientation programmes. Dr. Gisela Steffens from the DUK, who replaced Dr Rissom early in 1985, took great interest in the project and contributed much to its further development.

In the initial stage of the project, the UIE received support from the German Foundation for International Development (DSE). In this respect, the participation and co-operation of Dr. Josef Müller was very much appreciated.

We also received valuable co-operation and guidance from Unesco Headquarters. Mr Paul Mhaiki and Dr. John Ryan from the Division of Primary Education, Literacy and Adult Education, and Education in Rural Areas (ED/PLA) provided consultation and co-operation in planning and implementing various phases of the project. Dr. Ryan helped us in conducting an international orientation seminar and a regional seminar for Latin America and the Caribbean, while Mr. Camillo Bonani, Mr Jong Gyu Kim and Dr. Arthur Gillete from the same Division helped in conducting the Pan-African, Asian and Arab orientation seminars, respectively. Similarly, Mr. B. Haidara and Mr. Tai Afrik from the Unesco Office for Education in Africa (BREDA), Mr Raja Roy Singh and Mr. T.M. Sakya from the Unesco Regional Office for Education in Asia and the Pacific (ROEAP) extended their co-operation in planning and conducting the African and Asian seminars respectively. For the Orientation Seminar conducted in the Latin American and Caribbean region we received co-operation from Dra. María E. Dengo de Vargas from the Unesco Regional Co-ordination Office, Caracas, Drs. S. Romero Lozano, Donald Lemke and José Rivero, from the Unesco Regional Office for Education in Latin America and the Caribbean (OREALC). From the Unesco Regional Office for Education in the Arab States (UNEDBAS) co-operation was extended by A. Yousuf, Director and A. Yousif, Regional Adviser in conducting the Orientation Seminar for the Arab States. We are grateful to all of them.

From UIE, Mr Daya A Perera and Dr Adama Ouane worked intensively on this project. Dr. Lekh Nath Belbase and Ms Mercy Abreu de Armengol were involved in its Asian and Latin American phases respectively. Mr Michael Green, Mr Paul Gregory and Dr Frederick Gardiner helped in editing the manuscript. Ms W. Tränkler and Ms Louise Silz took the responsibility of typing the manuscript for publication. Our thanks are due to all of them for their valuable work. It is not possible to name all the colleagues from

the UIE who contributed substantially and in different ways. I wish to express my deep sense of appreciation for their active co-operation right from the inception of the Project.

It is hoped that the experience of different countries in the field of post-literacy and continuing education presented in the synthesis volume as well as other volumes presenting national case studies in the series will be of use to the policy-makers and practitioners involved in this vital aspect of education in developing countries.

Ravindra H. Dave
Director
Unesco Institute for Education

Chapter 1

LITERACY AND CONTINUING EDUCATION IN CHINA

by

Li Jiyuan

INTRODUCTION

For historical reasons and on account of economic backwardness, eighty per cent of the whole population of old China were illiterate. New China, ever since its founding, has been conducting programmes of literacy, post-literacy and continuing education which, as practice has shown, are extremely important for the reconstruction of the country and the development of the nation. Remarkable achievements have been made, thanks to the leadership of the Communist Party and the Central People's Government, the concern and support of the governments at various levels, all the departments and fronts concerned and the broad masses of the people.

Literacy education is still under way, so that the cultural and scientific level of the broad masses of the people will be constantly improved. Continuing education is being pursued actively. The purpose is to develop people's intelligence and to train qualified personnel. The present report is on literacy and continuing education in China.

1. GENERAL BACKGROUND

Here the main geographical, demographical, socio-political and economic aspects of China are presented before the present structure and history of the educational system and literacy programmes are discussed.

1.1 Geography

The People's Republic of China is situated in the eastern part of Asia and on the eastern shores of the Pacific. Her area is about 9,600,000 square kilometres. The physical features of the country are such that the eastern part of the country is higher than the western part. The topography and the scenery vary enormously. Of the total area, the mountainous regions cover about thirty-three per cent, the plateaux about twenty-six per cent, the basins about nineteen per cent, the plains about twelve per cent, and the hill country about ten per cent. There are many high and imposing mountain ranges. Rivers and streams are numerous and provide rich water resources. There are also many lakes.Along the east and south coasts there are, from the north to the south, the Yellow Sea, the East China Sea, the South China Sea and the Beihai Sea - an inland sea. These vast seas provide the population with plenty of fish, salt, and other aquatic resources, and facilitate communication with foreign countries. The territory is vast and the climate consequently varied. The temperature varies greatly between the south and the north and from summer to winter. The average annual rainfall decreases gradually from 1,500 mm. in the south-east to below 50 mm. in the north-west. Mineral resources are rich, varied and widely dispersed.

1.2 Nationalities, Population and Administrative Divisions

China has fifty-four nationalities, including the Han, Mongol, Tibetan, Uygur and Zhuang nationalities.

The population numbers 1,031,882,511 (figures for the year 1982). Of the 1,008,175,288 people in the twenty-nine provinces, municipalities and autonomous regions, 93.3 per cent belong to the Han nationality and 6.7 per cent are members of the national minorities; 20.6 per cent live in the cities and towns, and 80 per cent live in the countryside, where the distribution of population is uneven.

China has thirty-two administrative divisions - three municipalities directly under the Central People's Government, twenty-two provinces, five autonomous regions and two districts. In the twenty-nine provinces, municipalities and autonomous regions on the mainland, there are 2,647 counties, towns and districts, 52,000 people's communes (or townships) and 720,000 brigades (or villages). The capital of the country is Beijing.

1.3 Politics and Economy

The People's Republic of China is a unified multi-national country and a socialist state under the dictatorship of the people, with the proletariat as the leading class and the alliance of workers and peasants as the basis. The socialist system is the fundamental system of the country. All nationalities are equal and power rests in the hands of the people. Democratic centralism is practised by the state organs.

All the peoples of the country are now working for the modernization of industry, agriculture, national defence, science and technology, and for the development of the country into a highly civilized and democratic one.

The general goal of economic development in the country is to increase the total value of output of industry and agriculture to about 2,800 billion yuan by the year 2000. By that time the modernization of the national economy will have made great headway, the personal income of the people both in the cities and in the countryside will have doubled and redoubled, and the material and cultural life of the people will have greatly improved.

1.4 Educational System

The educational system in China comprises pre-school education, primary education, secondary education and higher education.

Pre-school education is provided by kindergartens of various kinds in both the cities and the countryside. Primary education is provided by the full-time primary schools for children and the adults' primary schools of literacy and basic skills. Secondary education is provided by the formal full-time middle schools, the secondary professional schools, the vocational schools, the technical schools, the secondary agricultural schools and the adults' secondary general and technical schools. Higher education is provided at the full-time universities and colleges, the colleges for professional training, the graduate schools and by institutes of higher learning for workers and peasants operating by means of radio and television broadcasts and correspondence courses.

The general principles of running the schools in China include:

- combining learning and education with production at all levels;
- taking special measures to suit local conditions;
- teaching the students in accordance with their aptitudes; and,
- finally, maintaining flexibility as and when required (Xueju, 1982).

Since 1949 China has greatly improved the educational level of the masses. As Zhongda (1981) has noted, "in the past 32 years, since the founding of the People's Republic of China, more than 38,940,000 have completed elementary education, more than 3,590,000 have completed spare-time middle schooling, and more than 1,000,000 have graduated or completed at least one course at the spare-time institutions of higher learning".

The key to modernization lies in science and technology, of which education is the foundation. It is imperative, therefore, to make efforts to popularize primary education, to strengthen secondary and higher education, and to develop various

countryside. Similarly, the education (including literacy education) of the workers, peasants and cadres needs to be directed at the training of various kinds of qualified personnel and the enhancement of the nation's level of scientific achievements. This would fulfil the requirements for the reconstruction of the country.

1.5 Literacy Programmes Past and Present

In the thirty years and more that have passed since the founding of New China, literacy, post-literacy and continuing education have leaped forward. This development can, in retrospect, be very roughly divided into three stages.

The first stage covers the seventeen years from October 1949 to April 1966 before the ten-year upheaval. During the early days of the young People's Republic, Winter Study was undertaken and night schools were run for the participants to learn to read and to learn about politics and current affairs. Primary and secondary education in literacy and basic skills were developed step by step among the worker-and-peasant masses. The Central Committee of the Communist Party and the State Council issued in 1956 the "Decisions on the Elimination of Illiteracy" and a mass literacy campaign was started. By 1965 over a hundred million people had become literate. In the meantime, spare-time primary schools and middle schools had been introduced, and secondary and higher professional education had also made some headway.

The second stage covers the period of the ten-year upheaval. Literacy and post-literacy education were badly hit - the institutions were dissolved, the cadres were transferred to other posts, the school houses were occupied for other purposes, work was long at a standstill, and adult education was greatly weakened.

The third stage covers the period from October 1976 to the present day. The State Council issued in 1978 its "Instructions on Anti-Illiteracy Education", and the Central Committee of the Party and the State Council jointly issued in 1981 the "Decisions on Strengthening Education of the Staff and Workers". Literacy, post-literacy and continuing education have now returned to normal and have gained headway along with the cause of socialist reconstruction. By the year 1982, there were over 7.5 million participants enrolled in adult primary education,

over 10.8 million participants in adult secondary education, and over 1.77 million participants in higher education.

Since the founding of New China, much has been achieved in literacy and post-literacy education. By 1982, about 143.55 million people had become literate and the illiteracy rate had decreased from 80 per cent in the early days of the People's Republic to 23.5 per cent. By 1982, over 3.52 million people had graduated from spare-time professional primary schools, over 9.42 million people had graduated from spare-time professional secondary schools, and over 1.58 million people had graduated from higher institutes of learning for adults. The cultural, scientific and technological levels of the broad masses of the people have been enhanced and various kinds of qualified personnel needed for the reconstruction of the country have been trained. Literacy, post-literacy and continuing education have played an important part in promoting the material and spiritual civilization of the country and in advancing the cause of socialist modernization.

In educating the staff and workers our main approach is to develop secondary and higher professional education and conduct continuing education in junior middle schools for some of the younger staff and workers. While educating the peasants, we are following the elimination of illiteracy approach on the one hand, and devoting major efforts, on the other hand, to developing primary and secondary education in culture and technology and initiating higher professional education. Our tentative programmes are as follows:

Goals for the Education of Staff and Workers by the Year 19[illegible]

- Completion of the first phase of training for the staff and workers in a planned and systematic way;

- Elimination of the remainder of illiteracy;

- Sixty to eighty per cent of the workers whose educational level is lower than that of the junior middle school graduates shall reach the level of the junior middle school graduates. One third of the staff and workers who are at the level of the junior middle school graduates shall reach the level of the senior middle school graduates or the professional secondary school graduates. A considerable

number of staff and workers who are at the level of the senior middle school or the professional secondary school graduates shall reach the level of college students.

Goals for the Education of Peasants

- The elimination of illiteracy among both young and middle-aged people by the year 1985, the year 1990 or the year 1995, depending on the economic and cultural conditions and the degree to which primary education is extended to different regions;

- Eighty per cent of the young people whose educational level is lower than that of the primary school graduates shall reach a level higher than that of the middle school graduates by the year 1990, except for the places where economic and cultural conditions are very backward;

- The lower-ranking cadres, the peasant technicians and the young peasants with education equivalent to junior middle level to be organised, by stages and in groups, to participate in various forms of education in culture, science and technology so that by the year 1990 one-fifth, one-fourth or one-third of them will have reached the level of the secondary vocational or technical school graduates.

Currently, literacy education is conducted mainly for the rural peasants and production brigades, since illiteracy among the workers has been almost eliminated through a vast system of spare-time primary education. The target group for literacy education includes young and middle-aged illiterates between 15-40 years of age with no written vocabulary or with a vocabulary smaller than 500 Chinese characters; semi-literates, with a written vocabulary larger than 500 Chinese characters but below the standard of literacy; children between 12-15 years of age who do not go to a full-time school, who dropped out before completing five years of school or without completing grade three.

A person is considered literate in Chinese if he or she is able to read and write 1,500 characters, understand popular newspapers, keep simple accounts and write informal notes. The literacy criteria for the minority national languages are laid down by the relevant province or autonomous region. For such

literacy education the teaching materials include the Reading Primer for Eliminating Illiteracy, written and compiled mainly by the provinces, municipalities and autonomous regions and occasionally by some counties. The contents of the materials are closely associated with actual work and life. Similarly, the teaching staff includes local graduates from junior or senior middle schools, part-time teachers from regular schools, cadres and other educated persons. To these people a certain amount of payment is made for their work.

Upon completion of the Primer, a final examination is held in three subjects: reading, writing, and reading of Chinese characters. Those who have learned 60 per cent of the new characters from the textbooks, can read without difficulty and comprehend the main ideas of the last book of the textbook series, and can write informal notes, receipts and so on, are awarded a graduation certificate by the Bureau (section) of Education under the municipality or county government.

An established standard for units that have basically eliminated illiteracy is that the literacy learners in a unit must make up 85% of the total number of persons between 12-40 years of age. The checking procedures before acceptance are to be worked out by each province, municipality or autonomous region. The following procedure, laid down by Guangxi Autonomous Region, is an example:

Listening to the reports given by the unit being checked;

Checking carefully the total number of teenagers, young and middle-aged persons, the number of illiterates and those who have attained literacy. This is done also by examining the investigation forms of educational status, muster roll and school report cards of those who have attained literacy, by holding informal discussions, and making individual visits.

Evaluation procedures before acceptance comprise the following:

- Individuals who have attained literacy: To be checked individually by the production brigade.

- Production brigades that have basically eliminated illiterates: To be checked by people authorized by the commune. The total selected for examination must not be less than 50 per cent.

- Communes that have basically eliminated illiteracy: To be checked by the county or the department responsible for the work of the higher authority. Generally speaking, the brigades that are selected to be examined cannot be fewer than one third.

- The counties that have basically eliminated illiteracy: To be checked by the prefectures (municipalities). The number of the communes and brigades examined in detail cannot be less than one fourth.

- The prefectures or municipalities that have eliminated illiteracy: Not to be checked again on the whole by the autonomous region except that a few of them be selected for examination when necessary.

After being checked and accepted, the units that have basically reached the standard of eliminating illiteracy are awarded a certificate or certificate of merit by the higher authority. Those who have achieved excellent results in running the schools, teaching, learning, providing moral encouragement and material rewards are also awarded certificates.

2. POLICY MATRIX REGARDING LITERACY

Present policies for literacy and continuing education in China have evolved along lines established at the founding of New China in 1949. An effort has been made here to enumerate some of these important guiding strategies.

2.1 Guidelines

Since the founding of New China, the Central Committee of the Party and the State Council have on many occasions given instructions on the conduct of literacy, post-literacy and continuing education for workers and peasants; they have in particular prescribed orientations for development and set tasks and requirements. To illustrate this we will cite a few examples here.

In the early days of the People's Republic, instructions were given to continue the Winter Study Movement, the main task of which was education in literacy, politics and current affairs. It was stipulated that after the completion of Winter Study qualified participants would be selected for further study in the Half-Day Schools, the Peasant Night Schools or the primary schools. Instructions were also given to conduct the spare-time education of the workers by running spare-time primary schools, by holding intermediate or junior courses attached to the spare-time schools and by enrolling students mainly from the staff and workers of the industrial and mining enterprises. It was also suggested that a joint effort to carry on this work should be made by the governments at various levels, the departments concerned, and the administrative and trade union organs of the enterprises.

It was pointed out in 1959 that to keep pace with the development of production and to meet the requirements of reconstruction, education of the staff and workers in the industrial and mining enterprises must serve the purposes of popularizing education and training cadres. All enterprises were urged to educate their staff and workers while fulfilling their production tasks, so that not only products would be manufactured but also a new kind of person would be fostered for the good of society as a whole. In the countryside, spare-time post-literacy education was to be extended to young people so as to improve their political, cultural and vocational understanding and skills.

It was reiterated in 1978 that, in the new historical period of socialist modernisation, attention should be given to the elimination of illiteracy so as to meet the requirements of the construction of material and spiritual civilization. Young people who had already become literate and people in their thirties or forties who had had access to study should attend the spare-time primary schools. Those who had reached the level of the primary school graduates should continue their study so as to reach the level of the junior middle school graduates. Emphasis was also placed on strengthening political education and conducting extensive scientific and technological education. It was confirmed that the education of the staff and workers was important for the development of people's intelligence and the training of qualified personnel. It was a reliable guarantee of continued growth of the national economy, which had a close bearing on the success or failure of the four areas modernization, i.e., industry, agriculture, national defence, and science and technology. Therefore, it was considered important to formulate a plan as soon as possible, and to try to implement it effectively. Party and government departments, trade unions, and the Communist Youth League organisations of all industrial and mining enterprises and affiliated institutions were urged to pay more attention to the education of the staff and workers, to formulate concrete plans, and to propose corresponding requirements in training workers, technicians, managers and administrative personnel.

With the aim of improving the quality of education and strengthening administration, the State Council nas stipulated a number of conditions and procedures for the approval of new institutions of higher education for staff, workers and peasants. The Ministry of Education and the educational offices of the provinces, municipalities and autonomous regions, as well as all the ministries and commissions under the State Council, have formulated administrative measures, teaching plans and programmes for schools of all kinds at various levels. In the light of unified policies and principles and within the limits of their functions and powers, the departments at lower levels have formulated rules and regulations for the better functioning of the schools.

2.2 Administration and Organisation of the School Systems

In order to strengthen the administration, Educational Commissions for Staff and Workers and Educational Commissions for

Workers and Peasants have been set up at both the central and local levels. In the Ministry of Education, under the Central People's Government, there is a Department of Adult Education. Similarly, under the Bureau of Education in every province, municipality and autonomous region there is an Educational Office for Workers and Peasants. (The equivalents in Beijing and Tianjin are, respectively, the Educational Bureau for Workers and Peasants and the Second Educational Section.) Under the Educational Office of the prefecture or the city there is an Educational Section for Workers and Peasants. Under the Educational Office of the county (or town, or district) there is an Educational Section for Workers and Peasants. Every industrial and mining enterprise has its Educational Office (or Section). In the People's Communes (or townships) there are usually inspectors in charge of the education of the peasants. In addition, there are also many teaching and research organisations set up by the provinces and counties to compile textbooks, study teaching methods and train teachers to meet the requirements of adult and continuing education.

A certain number of full-time staff members are provided by the administrative organs at various levels. The main tasks of these staff members are the following:

- To implement the relevant decisions and instructions of the Central Committee of the Party and the State Council;

- To formulate plans and fulfill tasks;

- To formulate the teaching plan and programme, compile teaching materials, train the teachers and discuss and direct the work of teaching in the schools conducting adult education;

- To formulate rules and regulations so as to strengthen teaching, learning and administration;

- To exchange and spread experiences and to commend the advanced.

Adhering to the "walking-on-two-legs" policy, i.e., developing the educational system by setting up schools run by both the states and the masses, China has adopted the system of running schools in a variety of forms in order to develop literacy, post-literacy and continuing education. In the field of the

education of the staff and workers, schools are run by the departments and affiliated organisations, companies, enterprises and institutions of industry, commerce, communication and transport. Schools are run at the provincial, prefectural and county levels. The trade unions, the state organs and the social organisations all run schools. For the education of the peasants, schools are run by the departments and affiliated farms, service centres or institutes of agriculture, forestry, animal husbandry, part-time occupations and fishery. Schools are run at the county, commune and brigade levels. Women's federations, the Communist Youth League organisations and the people's militia are all involved in running schools. Various kinds of schools and classes - from the lower to the higher level - are also run according to the actual local conditions and needs, thus greatly advancing literacy, post-literacy and continuing education.

2.3 Flexibility of the Educational Structure and Content

In developing literacy, post-literacy and continuing education, China has adopted a system in which education is given to people who are completely or partly released from regular work or who attend classes on fixed dates. In schools where the goal is to provide primary or secondary education, the form adopted is usually that of spare-time study. In schools where the goal is to provide secondary and higher education, the students are completely or partly released from work. If partly released from work, the spare-time study approach is adopted.

In developing secondary and higher education, radio, television and correspondence courses are widely used, in addition to direct instruction. In the countryside, short-term training courses and lectures on special subjects are adopted for spreading knowledge of science and technology. In conducting literacy education, teaching and learning by the contract method is employed, so that full responsibility is taken by the teachers and students for the elimination of illiteracy.

Generally speaking, education in China comprises political, cultural, scientific and technological education. In political education, the main content is ideological, political and education in current affairs and policies. Courses in political theory are also offered in colleges, universities and secondary professional schools. In the case of cultural education, the main task is to eliminate illiteracy and conduct courses in elementary cultural knowledge suited to primary and secondary

school students. In the field of science and technology, the main task is to conduct courses in science and technology and develop a more systematic professional knowledge at the levels of primary, secondary and higher education. In conducting these three kinds of education, varied emphases are given in accordance with different goals, requirements and participants.

2.4 Motivation Strategies

The graduates of all the staff and workers' universities, part-time staff and workers' universities, correspondence universities, night universities, radio and television universities are granted full accreditation. Graduates who are regular workers of the state are, in principle, employed and treated in basically the same way as their counterparts from the formal full-time colleges and universities.

In the factories, the level of education is one factor in the evaluation of workers for promotion. The enterprises of the people's communes and the brigades in the countryside have also set corresponding educational requirements in their advertisements for workers and for promoting cadres. Criteria and regulations have been set for evaluating and promoting peasant technicians and also for subsidizing and rewarding them. Graduates from the peasants' technical schools are given priority for employment in suitable technical work or for teaching jobs in the peasants' schools.

In order to foster and promote qualified personnel needed for the four areas of modernization, Higher-Educational Directory Commissions of Examinations for Self-Taught People have been set up at the levels of the state, provinces, municipalities and autonomous regions. If the self-taught people prove their qualification by passing the relevant examinations, sponsored by the Higher-Educational Directory Commissions of Examinations and the colleges and universities appointed by the Commissions, the state will recognise their academic records, and their employment and salary will be adjusted accordingly.

2.5 Support from the Masses

Literacy, post-literacy and continuing education are campaigns involving millions and millions of people. It is beyond the ability of the state alone to assume every task involved.

Only by relying on mass participation can the campaign be implemented successfully and extensively. Formed according to the principle of "letting the people teach themselves", the contingent of school teachers consists of full-time teachers as the key members, as well as part-time teachers. In the countryside, teachers are chosen on the spot from those with the necessary knowledge. Tens of millions of such literate people are relied upon for literacy education. Payments to the teachers are made by the sponsor units, and appropriate subsidies are offered by the state.

The industrial and mining enterprises allocate 1.5 per cent of the total wages of the staff and workers to education. In the countryside, the principle of "school of the people and school by the people" is practised. Funds are also collected from the masses - provided that the masses are willing, can afford, and benefit from the programme. In addition, subsidies are provided by the state. However, it is the responsibility of the sponsors to provide the school facilities for running these programmes. As far as management is concerned, the schools are subject to the sponsoring units. In matters of professional concern they are responsible to the state's educational departments.

3. MAJOR TECHNIQUES FOR POST-LITERACY AND CONTINUING EDUCATION

In order to consolidate advances in literacy and prevent new literates from relapsing into illiteracy, a number of measures have been adopted by different regions throughout the country in addition to sending the neo-literates to the spare-time primary schools for continued study. Jiang Yang County of Sichuan Province serves as an example. This county had virtually eliminated illiteracy by the spring of 1979; in the summer of the same year it entered into a period of consolidation. The specific measures taken were:

- Deepening the ideological understanding of the cadres and those who had attained literacy: to overcome the slack mood and the idea that literacy education had reached its peak and cannot proceed further. This will help to organise those who have reached literacy and now need to improve their general knowledge.

- Adopting diverse forms of study according to individual and local conditions: (a) to form study groups with production team as a unit while organising a centralized study once a week by the production brigade; (b) to organise a spare-time study group for the production team; (c) to guide self-study; (d) to be fixed one day once a week for the neo-literates who are working in a specialized team to study, while reading books or newspapers in their leisure time; (e) to hold broadcasting classes every two days in the commune. The league group leader of the production team is responsible for the organisation of the neo-literate listeners; (f) to organise family study groups.

- Unfolding the teaching activities of the "four enhancements" and "four improvements", by compiling new teaching materials with new contents, that is, (a) to practise copying and dictation and improve learners' knowledge of 1,500-2,000 basic Chinese characters through exercises; (b) to enhance guidance in reading by organising the pupils to read extensively newspapers and popular books, so as to develop vocabulary, broaden the scope of their knowledge, and improve reading and comprehension skills; (c) to enhance writing practice so as to improve

writing ability; (d) to enhance arithmetic (including reckoning with the abacus). In line with the above requirements "Peasant Reading Textbook", "Textbook of Individual Characters", and "Characters Commonly Used in the Countryside" have been recompiled in an edition of 140 thousand copies which are distributed among the pupils in batches according to the teaching requirements of different stages.

- Launching a movement of "hundred, thousand and ten thousand" reading and writing activities on a grand scale; that is, to read a hundred articles, to write a thousand sentences and to copy ten thousand characters. This activity can be combined with the teaching of "Characters Commonly Used in the Countryside" book, practising reading and writing for a certain time after learning some characters. Reading materials include Peasants' Daily, picture books, and popular rural books. Besides, the county library and 376 brigade libraries exchange their books once a month so as to provide enough books for most of the pupils to read. In addition, the masses are encouraged to exchange books among themselves; "everyone contributes books and everyone reads" as the peasants are wont to say. Those who have just reached literacy bring their books with them all the time and are ready to read them as soon as they get some spare time.

- Enhancing the understanding and memory further by applying what they have learned to actual practice in production and in daily life. Integration of learning with practice and learning while practicing are encouraged. All those who have attained literacy are called on to keep accounts, write diaries and informal notes, and write personal letters to friends and relatives.

There are many different techniques for carrying out the plan of literacy and continuing education in China. But the principal one is by running the various adult education schools (classes or groups), while raising the political, cultural, scientific and technological levels of the broad masses through newspapers, magazines, books and cultural activities. The main components of this technique are the following.

3.1 Spare-Time Literacy and Technical Schools at the Primary and Secondary Levels

While implementing the plan of literacy and spare-time primary education, since the founding of the People's Republic spare-time primary schools have been widely set up in both factories and in the countryside. As a result, illiteracy amongst the workers has been virtually eliminated; now they all have a common educational level equivalent to primary school graduates or above. Therefore, the spare-time literacy and technical schools at the primary level are held mainly in rural (village) production brigades or full-time primary schools in the countryside. There are many different names in use for this kind of school, such as, Peasant Night School, Peasant Spare-time School, Peasant Elementary Literacy and Technical School, etc. However, the level of education is similar to that of literacy education and the various classes and grades of the formal primary schools.

Spare-Time Primary Schools

Learners: peasants who have attained literacy; drop-outs from primary schools; youth and cadres at the grassroot level; and some middle-aged persons.

Training Goals: To enlarge vocabulary, to develop reading and writing abilities up to the level of primary school graduates, to improve the knowledge and skill of reckoning up to that of the primary school graduates.

Curriculum: Offering courses in politics, Chinese, arithmetic and general knowledge.

Length of Schooling: Two or three years to be prolonged or shortened according to the amount of spare time available for study.

Teaching Materials: Making use of either the unified textbooks for peasant and worker spare-time primary schools compiled by the state, or the textbooks compiled by the provinces or autonomous regions.

Teaching Staff: Each class to be staffed with one or two part-time teachers from full-time schools or with youths who have graduated from junior middle schools or above and who have some teaching experience, and retired teachers. These teachers receive a certain amount of payment.

Examination and Graduation: Pupils who have successfully completed the required courses and passed the examinations are granted the graduation certificate of the Part-time Primary School by the Bureau of Education under the People's Government of the county or municipality. This certificate is equal in value to that granted by the regular full-time primary school.

Problems: Teaching and administrative problems are to be solved by the units running the school. The common problems of the Peasant Spare-time Primary School of Literacy and Techniques (PSPSLT) run by the production brigade and the literacy classes, and primary classes held by PSPSLT are all solved under the leadership of the brigade, which include:

- Organisation and Mobilisation: To be organised and mobilised by means of propaganda carried out by the Party branch, team committee, League branch, women's federation, militia and other cadres and teachers, dividing up the work of mobilisation and assigning a part to each individual or organisation who is responsible for solving the problems of the learners as they arise.

- Time Arrangement: Taking the characteristics of farming into consideration, arrange the time of classes, vacation and resumption comprehensively in accordance with the principles of "having more classes in the slack season and fewer classes in the busy season and having vacation from class in the very busy season", with certain organisational guarantees. There are usually 200 class hours in a year for spare-time study.

- Selection of Teachers: Select and appoint teachers for each class according to needs and qualifications; organise teachers to conduct teaching and study activities from time to time and for further training.

- Funds: To be raised and used for general expenditure.

- Administration: A leading group for peasant education organised by the brigade, consisting of one group leader, one deputy group leader and one brigade cadre, and another member selected from the teachers (or an appointed professional teacher) is responsible for organising teaching and other day-to-day work.

- Night School Run by Day School: Mainly to hold literacy classes and spare-time primary classes; the solutions to the specific issues concerning administration of the school differ from place to place according to the unified guidance of teaching requirements. Some of the measures taken in various places are:

  (1) Teaching staff arrangements:

  (a) The surplus teachers of a full-time primary school teach professionally at the night school;

  (b) The full-time school with no over-staffed teachers cuts down certain teaching assignments of the teachers of the night school;

  (c) Teachers from day school teach in turn at night school.

  (2) Diverse forms of schooling: According to different types of pupils holding night classes, every-other-day class, half-day class and slack season class, etc.

  (3) Administration: "Two schools sharing one school-master system" followed. The school master exercises leadership and management over both the day school and the night school, arranging teaching and other activities in an all-round manner.

In the process of literacy education some full-time schools have put into practice a responsibility system of "school as a whole responsible for the brigade, teachers responsible for the production team and senior pupils responsible for individuals (including illiterates)". Under the unified leadership of the headmaster, the school divides up the literacy work amongst different individuals and groups. The teachers and the pupils are rewarded according to the rules of the brigade. This method is used in many places at present and has achieved fairly good results in literacy education.

Spare-Time Secondary Schools for Staff and Workers

These include spare-time junior and senior middle schools mainly run by the factories and prefectures (counties,

municipalities and districts). The requirements of the teaching plan are as follows:

Learners: For the junior middle schools, the learners include the young staff and workers who graduated from primary schools and whose level of education is not equivalent to junior middle school graduates. For the senior middle schools, the learners include the young workers, staff and cadres graduated from the junior middle school and whose level of education is not equivalent to senior middle school graduates.

Training Goals: For spare-time junior middle schools the goal is to reach the level of regular junior middle school graduates and lay the foundation for further study in science and technology. For spare-time senior middle schools the goal is to reach the level of regular senior middle schools and lay the foundation for further study in science and technology and other forms of higher education.

Curriculum: Spare-time junior and senior middle schools offer courses in four subjects: Chinese, mathematics, physics and chemistry. Some schools also offer courses in history, geography, politics, foreign languages, biology, and so on.

Length of Schooling: For junior and senior middle school it is about three to four years each, which is to be prolonged and shortened according to the number of class hours allotted for each week.

Teaching Materials: These schools make use of the unified textbooks compiled by the state for staff and workers' spare-time junior and senior middle schools.

Graduation and Examination: The pupils who have completed the required courses and have passed the examinations are granted a certificate, which serves as a basis to determine the level of education in promotion and job arrangements. Those who have passed the examinations in certain individual courses are issued a certificate of course completion.

Under the guidance of the teaching plans listed above, the problems concerned are to be solved respectively by the units responsible for running the school.

In the case of the spare-time middle schools run by the factories, teaching staff are allocated by the personnel department, which is generally 3-5 per cent of the total number of

the staff and workers. The factory is responsible for arranging the classroom facilities, teaching aids, experimental instruments, books, etc. Classes are organised 3-4 times a week with 2 hours each time. In each factory there is a section for education, which sees to the administration and management of these programmes.

In the case of the spare-time middle schools run by the prefectures, the teaching staff is allocated by the Bureau of Education of the Prefecture in a unified manner. In most cases the Bureau has to arrange its own school facilities. However, in some cases it also borrows the facilities of the formal, regular schools or spare-time schools organised by the factory. Classes are organised 3-4 times a week with 2 hours each time. The administration and management of these schools are seen to by the Administrative Department of Education or Peasant and Workers' Education Office of the Prefecture.

Spare-Time Secondary Schools for Peasants

These schools include both the spare-time junior and senior middle schools. At present, the spare-time junior middle schools have been widely run, while the senior middle schools are comparatively few in number. The following is an outline of the peasant spare-time junior middle schools:

Organizing Agency: The peasant spare-time middle schools are mainly run by the production brigades. Some of them are also held in full-time schools or run by the communes.

Learners: The youth, cadres and drop-outs from the full-time junior middle schools whose level of education is equivalent to primary school graduates or below that of junior middle school graduates.

Training Goals: To reach the level of junior middle school graduates upon completion of the required courses, and lay a foundation for further study of science and technology.

Curriculum: Courses are offered in politics, Chinese, mathematics, chemistry, physics, technical knowledge in agriculture, etc. In the light of specific conditions, single subjects, double subjects or multi-subjects are offered. In consideration of the actual needs of the countryside, courses are offered in rural practical writing, practical mathematics, applied chemistry, etc.

Length of Schooling: Three or four years, to be prolonged or shortened according to class hours spent each week.

Teaching Materials: Most of the schools use the unified textbooks compiled by the state for the worker-peasant spare-time junior middle school, and the others use the textbook compiled by the province.

Graduation and Examination: The pupils who have completed the required courses and passed the examinations are granted a certificate of graduation by the County Administrative Department of Education.

Teaching Staff: Graduates from the senior middle schools or above with certain teaching and professional abilities and qualifications. They are usually part-time teachers from full-time schools or the appointed retired teachers. Financial incentives to these teachers are paid by the local people. Part-time teachers are also awarded certain payments.

Funds: In addition to the money contributed by the unit running the school, the state provides subsidies from its educational fund. Some of the schools have the part-work part-study system.

Administration: Administration is conducted by the unit running the school.

Secondary Spare-Time Agricultural Schools for Peasants

These schools stress modern agricultural methods and are principally run by the communes, by the departments of agriculture, forestry, animal husbandry, fishery, or by the factories run by communes or production teams. These schools have been set up in large numbers throughout the country.

Learners: Include peasant technicians, cadres at the grass-roots level, and others who are not professionally trained.

Training Goals: The main goal is to provide professional and technical education for the peasants in order to serve the needs of production and daily life and to train a variety of elementary technicians for the production brigades and teams.

Specialities and Curriculum: It proceeds from practical courses such as farming, fruit-tree cultivation, silk-worm

culture, forestry, sewing, engineering and electrics, as well as other courses in agricultural, professional and technical specializations.

Time Arrangement for Study: These programmes generally run for 1-2 years. One-day or half-day classes are held four or five times a month, usually according to a fixed schedule. In the slack season, class-hours can be increased for concentrated study. The schools that are run in the production units and brigades may arrange more spare-time study, e.g., three or four two-hour classes each week.

Teaching Materials: For general knowledge courses, unified teaching materials, compiled by the state for spare-time junior middle schools are usually used. For specialized technical courses, various teaching materials designed specifically for such courses and compiled by each province, municipality and autonomous region are usually used.

Teaching Staff: The general knowledge courses are usually taught by the part-time teachers from primary and middle schools, while specialized technical courses are undertaken concurrently by the technicians concerned. Professional teachers are engaged as needed and are also responsible for both the organisation and the teaching of some basic courses.

Funds: In addition to funds contributed by the units running the school, a small tuition fee is charged by some schools.

Administration: The chief of the unit running the school holds the post of headmaster, together with the professional cadres or teacher in charge of the day-to-day work.

Graduation: Upon successful completion of the required courses, the pupils are issued a certificate of graduation and go back to their previous units. The state is not responsible for reassignment to their old jobs.

Spare-Time Secondary Professional Schools for Staff and Workers

According to the guidelines set by the Ministry of Education, the secondary professional schools for workers may be run either by professional companies, professional departments, or prefectures. If conditions allow, special classes for workers may be set up in these full-time schools. The concrete measures are the following:

Learners: Regular workers whose practical educational level is equivalent to junior middle school graduates, who have at least two years of working experience, and whose age is generally under thirty-five. In general, the applicants are required to apply for the professional school relevant to their professions. With the approval of their unit, and after passing rigorous entrance exams, the applicants are enrolled. Under the same conditions, the model workers and advanced workers have the privilege of being enrolled.

Objectives: The main goal is to help the learners reach the level of the graduates of formal full-time secondary professional schools.

Teaching Programmes: These programmes refer to the teaching programmes and similar courses of the formal full-time secondary professional schools. Guidelines are developed by the state ministries. With the help of these guidelines, the relevant departments of the provinces, municipalities and autonomous regions design teaching programmes for the schools under their jurisdiction.

Curriculum: It varies according to different specializations and the special needs of the students. The specialized courses offered are expected to have clear aims.

Length of Schooling: For those who are released from work, schooling usually lasts three years. For those who are partly released from work and those who study in their spare time, the length of schooling may be reasonably extended according to their class hours per week.

Faculty: Graduates from universities and colleges, or those who have the academic level equivalent to university graduates. However, all of them must be competent in teaching.

System: These professional schools are required to set up a system of administration in matters related to teaching students, and assessing teachers, etc.

Exams and Graduation: Exams for each semester and for each year, as well as graduation exams and graduation design, are carried out by referring to full-time secondary professional schools in the light of the characteristics of the workers' education. After the students finish the required courses and pass the exams, they are given diplomas. Their academic records receive official recognition.

Administration: The respective professional department assumes the major responsibility, while the education department gives academic guidance. However, the establishment or dissolution of a school must go through the procedure of approval according to the relevant provisions.

Spare-Time Secondary Professional Schools for Peasants

In accordance with the development of agricultural production and the increase in peasant activity in learning and applying science, secondary professional schools for peasants are being built in various parts of the country. According to a census of fourteen provinces and municipalities, by the end of 1982 the secondary professional schools for peasants run by the counties or towns numbered more than 320. The concrete methods are the following:

Learners: They include the administrative cadres and technicians of communes or brigades, the young people of the countryside with some experience in production, the teachers of peasants' education with an academic attainment equivalent to or above that of junior middle school graduates and preferably under the age of thirty.

Enrolment: The cadres, technicians, and teachers of the communes or brigades are chosen and sent to the professional school by their communes or brigades. The peasants are admitted according to their scores in the academic exams and with the approval of the leaders of communes or brigades.

Objectives: To provide training in science and technology at the secondary level for personnel of the people's communes, production brigades and production teams.

Teaching Programme: The teaching programmes generally run for two to three years. However, the programmes are developed in line with the programmes in similar specializations of the secondary agricultural schools. According to the practical situation, some courses may be reduced or cancelled while some others may be increased. The teaching programmes and the syllabus are studied and developed by the higher education department of provinces, municipalities or autonomous regions, together with the departments of agriculture. Similarly, the revised materials and teaching aids of the formal secondary agricultural schools are currently used by these schools.

Faculty: These include the university and college graduates and those who have academic training equivalent to university graduates. But all of them must be competent in teaching. The academic titles of both full-time and part-time teachers are evaluated with reference to the provisions of the evaluation of secondary professional school teachers.

Tuition: It is borne by the students, or by their communes or brigades when they are attending the school. Students may also be subsidized by the schools according to local situations. The concrete methods are to be worked out by each individual region.

Funds: Salaries for teachers and other staff members (excluding the production workers) who are in charge of administration and teaching, as well as subsidies for instructional equipment, are taken from the state's education fund. The expenditure for the capital construction, production investment, teaching equipment, etc. are borne by the financial department of the county where the school is located.

Administration: This type of school is run by the local government of the county or town, and administered by the education office, aided by the Agriculture Office, the Association of Science, and other departments concerned.

Graduates: Students who have finished the courses and passed the exams are awarded diplomas by the school. Their academic record is officially recognised. Then the graduates are sent back to their communes. In principle, those who were cadres, technicians and teachers before coming to school are sent back to their former posts. In the case of those who were peasants before coming to school, the leaders of their commune or brigade are expected to assign them appropriate work.

3.2 Spare-Time Universities and Colleges

In order to meet the needs for socialist modernization and professional personnel, staff and workers' universities, staff and workers' part-time universities, and peasants' training schools have been set up.

Spare-Time Universities for Staff and Workers

The staff and workers' universities and spare-time universities may be run by factories, companies, professional departments, or prefectures. Recently, universities of this kind have

been developing rapidly. By the end of 1982, there were about 600 universities of this kind in the country, with approximately 110,000 students enrolled. These universities are still being set up. Some of the main features of these institutions are the following:

Learners: Regular workers who have more than two years of working experience and whose practical academic level is equivalent to that of senior middle school graduates. The age of those released from work should not exceed thirty years; the age limit can be extended to thirty-five for those who are especially gifted.

Objectives: The main goal is to provide training to the technical and administrative personnel for the departments or the regions from which the students came.

Teaching Programmes: These include the incorporation of both the teaching programmes and the syllabus of higher professional colleges.

Length of Schooling: Three years for full-time study for those completely released from work; four to five years for part-time study.

Faculty: In order to attain the level reached by graduates of the regular universities, the usual full-time teacher-student ratio in the staff and workers' universities is 1:7-9. In the staff and workers' spare-time university the ratio is 1:15-20.

Housing and Equipment: The facilities should be adequate enough to house the students and teaching facilities. Necessary equipment for experiments is to be made available; in the meantime, these universities may use the laboratories at the formal universities, thus making the required laboratory courses possible. These universities also provide a certain amount of books and reference materials.

Funds: The funds are taken from the funds for education of the staff and workers of the enterprises.

Administration: The university has a president, a secretary of the Party group, the executive deputy-president, and an executive director in charge of teaching affairs. The staff members receive the same pay as their university counterparts.

Approval: A workers' university is established or dissolved in accordance with the procedure set by the State Council.

Graduation: The graduates of the staff and workers' universities and part-time universities are granted diplomas, and their academic achievement is recognised officially. The provinces, municipalities and autonomous regions are responsible for printing the diplomas. The Education Department is responsible for the seal, and the university is responsible for awarding it. The university diplomas are approved by the ministries and commissions under the State Council and printed by the ministries and commissions.

After graduation, the students usually return to their former units to be either cadres (technicians) or workers. In accordance with the principle of putting one's profession to full use, the work of the graduates is gradually adjusted according to skills and abilities. Alternatively, students are referred to higher departments responsible for relocation. The salary of the graduate is determined according to the relevant provisions.

Higher Professional College for the Peasants

At present, four Peasants' Higher Professional Colleges have been set up in Ji Xian County and three other counties in Jilin Province. The enrollment is more than 800. Peasants' Higher Professional Colleges in the countryside of China are still in the experimental stage.

The following is a brief introduction to Li Ming Peasants' University of Yian Ji County. This university was developed from the Peasants' Spare-Time School set up in 1958. The People's Government of Jilin Province approved its new title: "Li Ming Peasants' University".

Learners: These include the young peasants, cadres of the commune and the brigade, and agricultural workers - all having attained the academic level of the senior middle school. Additional learners include those who love the countryside, are determined to devote themselves to the cause of building a new rural environment, and have some work experience.

Objective: The major objective is to organise programmes geared to the practical needs of agricultural production in order to train professional technicians and administrative cadres on the agricultural front.

Courses: The courses generally run for three years. Current course offerings include agronomy, animal husbandry, and veterinary science.

Teaching Programme: The teaching programmes and the arrangement of courses are decided both by referring to the similar specializations of the formal agricultural universities and colleges, and by an analysis of the agricultural production needs of the county, viz., paddy rice, soya beans, millet, maize and Chinese sorghum.

Teaching Materials: These are to be chosen from the teaching materials of the formal agricultural universities, with proper deletion, reduction, combination and supplement.

Faculty: The full-time teachers do most of the teaching, supplemented by part-time teachers. Thirteen of the thirty-nine full-time teachers are lecturers (instructors), and ten part-time teachers are professors or associate professors.

Facilities: The physical facilities of the university, covering about 8,000 square metres, suffice for teaching (classrooms), living, and production. Most of the basic and specialized courses are available. There are more than ten thousand books in the university. Similarly, adequate lab facilities and tools are available for experiments and production.

Funds: The regular funding of the university is guaranteed by 170,000 yuan allocated by the state, as well as by the income of the part-work and part-study system. Students are given free board.

Administration: The People's Government at the county level exercises the leadership and the Education Office has the responsibility of putting these policies into practice. However, the university has an advisory board of 57 teachers and staff members, as well as 67 farming workers.

Graduates: After finishing the required courses and passing the exams, students are awarded diplomas. Their academic record is recognised by the state. The state does not take the responsibility for job placement of the graduates. Therefore, they return to their commune where they were engaged in agricultural, technical or administrative work.

This university has the following advantages over the formal full-time agricultural colleges:

(a) Returning the students to their place of origin; it trains agricultural scientists and technicians directly for the county itself.

(b) It satisfies the desire for further study of the school graduates of this county.

(c) It has a close connection with the actual production, and is, therefore, geared to a practice of serving the agricultural production of the county directly.

(d) It reduces the financial burden of the state - partly by raising funds of the university by self-reliance and partly by practising the system of part-work and part-study.

3.3 Correspondence Courses and Night Universities

The correspondence courses and night universities considered here are run by the formal universities and colleges. Most of the students are workers or working staff members. By 1981, there were 208 universities and colleges running the correspondence courses or night universities. Currently, there are more than 100 special courses in correspondence education, with more than 170,000 students enrolled. There are more than 120 special courses in night universities, with 38,000 students enrolled. The network of correspondence education is taking shape step by step. The main points of these programmes are the following:

Learners: Workers, working staff members, and school graduates. Generally, those students who are working specialize in studies related to their work.

Objective: The main goal is to help the learners reach a level of competence in their specializations equivalent to that of the formal universities and colleges.

Curriculum and Teaching Programme: Teaching is carried out in accordance with the relevant teaching programme and syllabus of the formal full-time universities and colleges. Similarly, the courses are set up in accordance with the respective specializations of the formal full-time colleges.

Length of Schooling: (a) Regular undergraduate: five to six years for science, engineering, agronomy, forestry etc.; six years for medicine; and five years for liberal arts. (b) Special course: four years for science, engineering, agronomy, forestry etc.; four years for medicine (excluding the specialized field of medical treatment); and three to four years for liberal arts.

Teaching Materials: The teaching materials for the basic courses are compiled and recommended by the Ministry of Education, together with the other departments concerned. The teaching materials for the basic and for the specialized courses are compiled and recommended by the relevant ministries. In some cases, the teaching materials of the formal full-time colleges can also be applied. The guide books for learning are compiled separately.

Faculty: The faculty consists of both full-time and part-time teachers. The facilities for the teachers in title-evaluation, promotion, and participation in advanced studies, scientific research and academic activities are equal to those of teachers in formal full-time colleges.

Study Hours: Forty-five weeks per year for correspondence students. The minimum number of self-study hours for all fields of specialization is 16-18 hours per week. The total time for attending classes in schools per year must not be less than five weeks. The hours for attending classes should be arranged separately at the rate of 10-15 per cent of the total number of self-study hours.

Correspondence Station: The correspondence station forms the basis of correspondence education. The task of the station is to organise and manage correspondence courses for the students by offering class teaching and by guiding study. The correspondence station is set in a college that has a similar or the same nature and interest. It may also be set up in factories, mines, enterprises or institutions. The required number of station staff and organisers for routine work is provided by the unit to which the station is attached. The correspondence education department of the college has the responsibility of directing studies.

Funds: The funds are arranged by the colleges which run the correspondence courses in accordance with the principle of overall-planning. First the funds are included in the budget of the college, then sent for approval by the responsible depart-

ment, and are finally allocated by the state. The funds for the correspondence station are managed by the unit which runs it.

Administration: The cadres, corresponding to the departmental heads of a college, are assigned the leadership of the correspondence departments and the night university. Departments and teaching sections give support in teaching affairs. The units where the correspondence students or the night university students work are required to guarantee the student's study hours and the necessary conditions for study. In addition, the units are to help them solve difficulties, motivate them ideologically and morally, so that the students complete the entire course of study.

Graduates: After finishing the required courses and passing the examinations, the students are awarded diplomas by the responsible colleges and their academic record is officially recognised. After finishing a single course and passing the examination, the students are given the graduation certificate. The colleges, which are entitled to award a bachelor degree, can also award the degrees to qualified correspondence and night university graduates who have completed all the requirements. These graduates enjoy the same benefits as the graduates of a formal full-time college concerning job assignment and title evaluation. The graduates, who are school graduates before receiving higher education, are employed by the Personnel, Labour and Planning Departments of the provinces, municipalities and autonomous regions, according to the need and the principle of giving priority to the advanced.

3.4 Broadcast and Television Schools and Universities

In order to develop continuing education, distance education by means of broadcast and televised media has been developed in recent years, starting off in a centralized way but now including local-level broadcasting. Schools for both secondary and higher levels of education have been set up making full use of electronic audio-usual aids. These play a very positive role in up-grading the cultural, scientific and technical levels of the broad masses and the cadres, and also in training qualified personnel. The following is a brief introduction to the Central Broadcast and Television University and the Central Agricultural Broadcast School.

Central Broadcast and Television University (CBTU)

The CBTU was established in 1979 by the Ministry of Education, in co-ordination with the Ministry of Broadcasting and Television and the Ministry of Post and Telecommunications. Three grades have been enrolled, with a total of 798,808 students, of whom 360,366 are students enrolled for general courses and 438,442 students enrolled for single specialized courses. The first group of 78,031 students graduated with engineering in 1982, and the students who finished the single specialized courses were about 140,000 in number.

Organization and Administration: The system of national higher broadcast and television education includes CBTU, 28 broadcast and television universities at the provincial level (excluding Tibet, which has not set up such a university yet), more than 400 branch schools (or 'work stations') run by prefectures (towns), and more than 1,500 classes in the fundamental units. The CBTU is jointly run by the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Broadcasting and Television. The broadcast and television colleges of the provinces are under the people's provincial governments. The branch schools in different areas are under the colleges of each prefecture. The broadcast and television colleges at different levels have their clear professional divisions. Professional guidelines proceed from the higher down to the low level. The funds for the colleges at different levels are appropriated by the Administrative Departments of Education at different administrative levels.

Learners: The regular students are selected from on-the-job workers, cadres, staff members engaged in science and technology, teachers, and/or off-the-job school graduates. One category of students consists of regular students who are admitted through examinations, and formally registered. These students are grouped into classes with their names on the school rolls. Another category of students comprises auditors who neither take the examinations nor have their names on school rolls. These students may apply for the graduate examinations according to the relevant rules. They are also awarded either a certificate in a single specialization or a diploma if they pass the examinations.

Objective: The main objective of distance learning through broadcasts and television is, by making use of modern media, to help the learners to acquire education to the level of the graduates of the formal specialized colleges.

Curriculum: The courses are offered at three levels: (a) The major courses of different specializations, i.e., the basic courses and the basic professional courses, are offered by the CBTU.(b) Part of the basic courses and guiding courses are offered by the colleges of the province. (c) The fundamental units that run the broadcast and television classes are in charge of the professional knowledge and technical training. The courses for all specializations are broadcast in three years.

Mode of Teaching: All the teaching is carried out through the means of television, broadcasts and correspondence. However, most of the instructional materials are the same, i.e., teaching materials commonly used at the formal universities and colleges, or self-compiled teaching materials of the institutes.

Examination: Examinations are conducted once in each semester. The standardized examination papers for the basic courses, including the standard key and the standard of grading, are prepared by the CBTU. The examinations are held at the same time. The broadcast and television colleges of the provinces, municipalities and autonomous regions are responsible for the organisational work and also for checking the examination papers. In all these activities the credit system is followed. After finishing all the courses of each specialization, passing the examinations and gaining the required scores, the student's academic record is accepted as equivalent to that of the graduate of a single specialization of the college.

Recording and Broadcasting of the Teaching Programme: The recording of the teaching programme is carried out jointly by the CTVC, the CBTU, and the broadcast and television colleges of the provinces. The courses are broadcast in various ways:

(a) The CTVC broadcasts a network programme for the whole country for about thirty-three hours per week. It is mainly in the courses offered by CBTU.

(b) The local TV station broadcasts the courses offered by the broadcast and television colleges of the province and re-broadcasts the courses offered by the CBTU. The broadcasting hours vary from one station to another.

(c) The local radio station broadcasts the courses in liberal arts offered by both the CBTU and the colleges of the province.

(d) The video tapes are delivered to the work station.

(e) The recording tapes are available so that they can be heard on recorders at any time.

Coaching and Testing Courses: Both the branch school and the teaching class have class coaching. The testing courses at present are carried out mainly with the aid of the testing facilities of the formal universities and colleges, the scientific research institutions and the enterprises, and are currently being arranged in free time or on weekends and holidays. The students must complete the minimum requirements of the test items, otherwise they are not allowed to graduate.

Faculty: The teachers are required to have a comparatively high academic level and special ability in distance-teaching. Except for the full-time teachers, those teachers who have achieved a high scholarly level at the formal full-time universities and colleges are invited to be principal lecturers.

Central Agricultural Broadcast School (CABS)

The Central Agricultural Broadcast School is a supplementary form of the secondary agricultural education, which aims at providing technical training in agriculture at the national level. It was established jointly by some departments concerned in November 1980. The classes began in July 1981. The first group of students admitted through the entrance examinations numbered about 400,000. At present, its agencies have been set up in 1,400 counties of 28 provinces, municipalities and autonomous regions. The main features concerning the organisation of the CABS are the following:

Learners: The regular students of CABS are the cadres, farmers and technicians of the county, the commune, the brigade and the state farm, as well as rural youth; all have a higher academic level than that of junior middle school, and have not been to the agricultural schools.

Objective: The main goal is to help the learners reach the level of secondary agricultural schools through a system of distance learning.

Curriculum: The main courses for each term include basic chemistry, botany, fertilizer and soil studies, and genetic breeding. Generally, four courses are set up for the first term. The total length of schooling lasts about two years.

Programme Broadcast: The programme is broadcast by the Central People's Broadcasting Station on Tuesdays, Thursdays and Saturdays - three times per day. Each programme lasts half an hour. The first portion of the time is allocated for the new lessons and the remaining two portions are for the repetitions of the previous broadcasts. All the teaching materials are compiled, printed and delivered by these schools.

Faculty: The teachers, who are familiar with the courses of the secondary professional schools and are experienced in teaching, are responsible for compiling the teaching materials, writing lecture notes and lecturing on the air. The part-time coaching teachers, who teach in the county, are paid for their teaching.

Examination and Graduation: At the end of each course, there is an examination. The CABS prepares a standard examination, prints copies, and provides a grading key. The time for the examination is also uniform. Each individual county takes the responsibility of marking the paper. Those who pass an examination are given the certificate for the single course by the county. Those who pass the whole examination for all the courses are awarded the certificate of graduation by the Central Agricultural Broadcast School. Those with high academic achievements are also awarded a prize. The irregular students, who listen to the required courses on their own, apply for the examination and pass, are recognised as regular students and are awarded the certificate of graduation.

Funding: The funds for the Central Agricultural Broadcast School are allocated by the Ministry of Agriculture, Husbandry and Fishery. The funds for the branch schools of the provinces, municipalities and autonomous regions and for the office of prefectures and counties are allocated by the local Financial Departments, the Departments of Worker-Peasant Education, the Departments of the Agricultural Technical Training, or from other sources depending on the local situation.

The Board is set up both in the Central Agricultural Broadcast School and in the branch school of the province. Offices are set up in prefectures and counties. They are in charge of routine work involving administration and coaching staff.

3.5 Development of Study Groups and Responsible Teaching

The systems of the Study Group and Responsible Teaching pertain mainly to the sparsely-populated areas.

Study Groups

In order to facilitate the learning activities of the illiterates and the neo-illiterates, various types of study groups are formed with the help of a group leader. The types of the study groups vary according to conditions. Study is carried out under the leadership of the production team or brigade in accordance with the plans. The major types of study groups are the following:

(a) *Neighbourhood study group*: This is a popular form of study group. The illiterates and semi-literates of a neighbourhood are organised to study four or five times a week, one or two hours each time.

(b) *Family study group*: The illiterates of a family are organised together to study in the evening or after meals. The daily study hours vary according to the local situation.

(c) *Women's study group*: The main participants of this type of group are women with a lot of housework. Women who are on good terms with each other and do not want to study with men usually join the women's study group. They usually study after meals.

(d) *Sideline study group*: The participants are illiterate and semi-literate stockmen. This kind of group is organised to adapt to production needs. The study hours are flexible.

The group leader takes responsibility for the group activities, reports on progress and helps solve the difficulties of study. The assignment of teachers is made by the production team or brigade. The teachers come to teach at the study hours set by the group. The system of teaching pledge, checking attendance, asking for leave, reward and make-up classes are set up to guarantee the quality of both teaching and learning. The teaching requirements and payment of the teachers are basically similar to those of regular class-teaching.

Responsible Teaching and Learning

Responsible teaching is one of the ways of eliminating illiteracy and semi-literacy among those who have special difficulties in study, e.g., women whose homes are far apart and who have a lot of housework, fishermen and stockmen. Responsible teaching is also a more flexible and open method of eliminating residual illiteracy. Responsible teaching is carried out under the direction of the production brigade or team. In some cases, the full-time school is in charge of this kind of teaching. The teachers of responsible teaching usually have no specific training concerning the teaching of illiterates or semi-literates. Such teachers are mostly school graduates, activists in combatting illiteracy, teachers of full-time schools and advanced-level students.

The method of responsible teaching is characterized by such mottoes as "relatives teach relatives", "neighbours teach neighbours", "children teach parents", "husband teaches wife", "daughter-in-law teaches her parents-in-law", and "sisters-in-law teach each other".

4. BASIC EXPERIENCES AND MAIN PROBLEMS

4.1 Basic Experiences

The basic experiences in literacy, post-literacy and continuing education in our country can be summarised thus:

(a) Literacy, post-literacy and continuing education programmes must keep pace with the political and economic development of the nation. The need to combat illiteracy, the task of improving the cultural and scientific understanding of the broad masses of workers and peasants, as well as the task of training professional personnel, should all be objectively identified from an observation of actual situations. It should be then put forward without delay in order to serve the political order, promote production, develop the economy, up-grade the living standard, and generally to contribute to the nation's material and spiritual civilization.

(b) The development of literacy education must follow the basic principles of adult education and the underlying procedures of adult learning based on the characteristics of different applicants, different conditions and different study requirements. The methods of teaching and running schools should follow a variety of techniques, be very flexible and include measures suitable to local conditions. The contents of education and the requirements of teaching must likewise be geared to existing circumstances and adapted to different needs. It must have multiple subjects, multiple levels and multiple types. In education of this kind, theory must be combined with practice and integrated with the interests of the masses. Study should serve the purpose of practical application and stress concrete results.

(c) Literacy education is the fundamental requirement for raising the cultural level of the masses, and is a predominant task of Education Departments at all levels. Thus, the Departments of Education should have a unified plan which at the same time

gives due consideration to all concerned. It should co-ordinate the universal junior school education closely with the literacy education, for the former is an important prerequisite for the elimination of illiteracy. It has been rightly said that "It takes more than three years to eliminate the illiterates of one year". The various formal full-time schools - at all levels - are a very important factor in the literacy, post-literacy and continuing education programmes. They ought to play an active part in activities such as school administration, teaching, faculty training, textbook-compiling etc.

(d) Literacy, post-literacy and continuing education must serve the masses. This kind of mass education has a very large number of participants, and the content of teaching is wide-ranging and complex, covering all professions and occupations. The task is therefore very arduous. All levels of government should strengthen their leadership and place the programmes high on the agenda. For this kind of education more schools can be effectively organised only by giving full play to all the departments concerned, by relying on the masses and all social forces, and by letting them exert their influence through joint efforts.

4.2 The Major Problems

According to the preliminary census, the number of illiterates in China is 235,000,000 - 23.5 per cent of the whole population. Most illiterates live in remote, thinly populated areas of the country, which are economically and culturally backward. Illiterates over forty number about 150 million, and the number of illiterates between the ages of twelve and forty is more than 80,000,000. The latter group is the main target group for the elimination of iiliteracy. The elimination of illiteracy in China has been - and continues to be - a long and difficult process. So far China has not been able to make primary education universal. Hence the number of new illiterates continues to grow.

Frequently the scheduled projects and plans are not fully implemented. The main reasons seems to be that the significance of this campaign is not understood well enough by the cadres and the masses. Therefore, it is essential to deepen their understanding of the campaign and to emphasise that continuing education is developed by the people in the same way as production and construction. Thus informed, cadres and the people will take an active part in the leadership of and the participation in this great cause.

The present scale of literacy, post-literacy and continuing education is still insufficient. This is due primarily to the lack of the necessary financial and material resources. Not enough funds are allocated by the state for the elimination of illiteracy and for organising the post-literacy and continuing education. In addition, the living standard of the people is low, the cultural level is backward, and qualified manpower is lacking - particularly in the countryside. These problems need to be resolved if the programmes of literacy, post-literacy and continuing education are to be carried out on an even larger scale.

For post-literacy and continuing education, various schools at different levels have been set up. However, the teaching plans, syllabuses and teaching materials suitable to the requirements of adult education are neither plentiful nor good enough. The research work on the theory of adult education is even weaker. Therefore, these problems should also be solved in the near future.

4.3 Summary and Conclusion

This report presents merely an overview of literacy, post-literacy and continuing education in China. It certainly has not reflected in detail the achievements that China has made in the field of adult education and the concrete methods of carrying out the adult education programmes.

At present, the level of culture, science and technology of the broad masses of workers and peasants of our country is still low. There is still a large number of illiterates. This situation certainly does not fit in with the goal of construction and socialist modernization. Therefore, adult education is an arduous task which has a long way to go. We believe, however, that China will be able to overcome these difficulties. Through

constant efforts and by making use of the experiences of other countries, literacy, post-literacy and continuing education in China has every prospect of being developed fully.

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Chapter 2

LEARNING STRATEGIES FOR POST-LITERACY AND CONTINUING EDUCATION AT THE BASIC LEVEL IN INDIA

by

D.V. Sharma

1. BACKGROUND INFORMATION

Geographical location

India is a vast country with an area of about 3.28 million sq. kms. The Tropic of Cancer passes right through the centre, cutting the country roughly into two halves. It is bounded by Pakistan, Afghanistan, China, Nepal, Bhutan, Burma and Bangladesh from north-west to east. The rest of the border is girdled by the Indian Ocean. The northern boundary is fringed by high mountains. The northern and northeastern areas, as well as some parts of the central and southwestern regions, are covered with mountains and hills. Part of the western region is desert. These areas present communication problems.

Socio-economic and Related Aspects

India is a multi-lingual, multi-cultural and multi-religious society. According to the 1981 census, the population of India is about 685 million, the percentage of rural and urban population being 76.3% and 23.7% respectively. The main occupation in rural areas is agriculture and allied crafts and industries. The small and marginal farmers and agricultural labourers form a large sector of the labour force. Persons engaged in services, factory work, construction, trade, commerce, etc. constituted 28% of the total workers in 1971; this percentage is expected to have changed only marginally by 1981. Though the country has made rapid progress in agriculture and industry, the gains have not been evenly distributed, which has resulted in great disparities in incomes.

2. EDUCATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

In 1951 (India became independent on 15 August, 1947) the literacy rate was about 17%. The post-independence period has been marked by a rapid expansion of school facilities, enrollment drives (specially for girls and weaker groups), provision of scholarships, stipends, and improvement in the quality of education.

It has also been characterised by the adoption of part-time nonformal education programmes on a large scale for those children who could not attend school full time. Universal elementary education now forms a part of the minimum needs programme of the Sixth Five Year Plan (1980-85). During 1982-83, it was included in the 20-Point Programme, which is receiving top priority. The Sixth Plan envisages 100% enrollment of children in the age group 6-14 years by 1990.

Adult Education has been receiving attention right from the First Five Year Plan under various names, e.g. social education, farmers' functional literacy programme, and nonformal adult education. In 1978 it was launched on a massive scale. It is now included in the 20-Point Programme as well as the Minimum Needs Programme. The Sixth Five Year Plan Document envisages coverage of the entire 110 million adult illiterate population by 1990. All the states have prepared operational plans to achieve this target and also have special plans to cover women and weaker social groups.

2.1 The Literacy Situation

The census data over the years has shown that the growth of literacy in India has not been able to keep pace with the growth of population; the total number of illiterates has doubled since 1901 (Table 1).

The population of the country increased rapidly after 1951. While the increase was about 14 million during the 1901-1911 decade, it increased by about 109 million during the 1961-1971 decade and by another 137 million during 1971-1981.

In 1961, India's population was 439.23 million and it increased to 548.16 million by 1971. During this period the number of literates increased from 105.53 million to 161.41 million, and the literacy rate increased from 24.02% to 29.45%. (1)

There is a considerable variation in literacy rates between men and women, rural and urban areas, and different population groups. The literacy programmes in India have to take these disparities into account. Adult education programmes place great emphasis on the coverage of illiterates in the age group of 15-35. The number of illiterates in this age group is estimated between 110 and 120 million (out of a total of about 235 million).

One of the main problems concerning illiteracy in India is that while the literacy rate is improving over the decades, the number of illiterates is also increasing. Thus, while the percentage of literacy increased from 16.7% in 1951 to 36.1% in 1981, the number of illiterates of all age groups increased from around 300 million in 1951 to about 438 million in 1981. This is due to such factors as the high rate of population growth, inadequate coverage of elementary and adult education, and the high dropout rate at the elementary level. The problem of illiteracy varies from state to state. Thus, there are certain states like Kerala, Tamil Nadu and Maharashtra that have a literacy rate of 45% and above, while other states like Rajasthan, Bihar, Uttar Pradesh, Jammu and Kashmir, and Madhya Pradesh that have a literacy rate of below 28%.

Table 1(a): Growth of Population and Literacy, 1901–1981

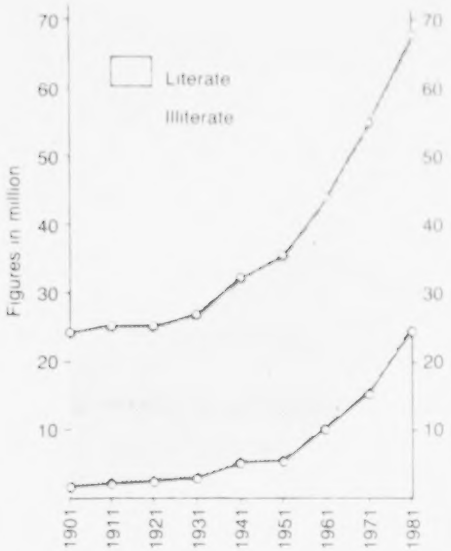
Census year	Population (million)	Rate of decadal change (%)	Literates (million)	Illiterates (million)	Literacy rate (%)
1901	238.40		12.68	225.72	5.35
1911	252.09	+ 5.75	14.85	237.24	5.92
1921	251.32	— 0.31	17.91	233.41	7.16
1931	278.98	+ 11.00	26.25	252.73	9.50
1941	318.66	+ 14.22	51.30*	267.36*	16.10
1951	361.09	+ 13.31	60.19	300.90	16.67
1961	439.23	+ 21.51	105.53	333.70	24.02
1971	548.16	+ 24.80	161.41	386.75	29.45
1981 (A)	685.18	+ 25.00	247.55	437.63	36.13
(B)	665.29		241.03	424.26	36.23

* Worked out on the basis of population and literacy rates included in Paper 1 of 1981-Provisional population totals.

A. Includes estimated figures for Assam.

B. Excludes Assam where census was not held.

Table 1(b): Growth of Total Population and Literate Population 1901–1981



Source: See Reference 1

Adult illiterates in India formed about 28% of the estimated world adult illiterate population of 742 million in 1970. Without taking into account the impact of adult literacy education programmes, the number of adult illiterates for India was projected at 243 million for 1980 and 286.8 million for 1990, forming 29.8% and 32.4% of the projected world adult illiterate population of 814.1 million and 884 million respectively. With the acceleration of the primary education programme (both formal and nonformal) and the adult education programme on a large scale, it is hoped that the number of adult illiterates in India will decrease considerably. (2)

Adult education and adult literacy programmes, therefore, have all along formed part of the development strategy of the country. The first plan document pointed out that:

> In a country, where 80% of the population are illiterate, democracy will not take root until a progressive programme of primary education trains up a generation fit to undertake its responsibilities. Even the programme of primary education is considerably handicapped without a corresponding programme of adult education.

Adult education has figured in all the plans prepared by the Planning Commission and implemented throughout the country through various state governments. The form and the manner of implementation of the programme have varied considerably in keeping with the changing needs of the country.

Due to the varying approaches used in the development of the adult education programme and the dimensions and complexities of the planning strategies, adult literacy has had various orientations and emphasis. Government, non-government agencies, universities and the student community, welfare and community organisations have separately and together been promoting the programmes related to literacy. Although the formidable problem of illiteracy has not yet been overcome, the efforts of the past have doubtless covered considerable ground and the cumulative experience has yielded valuable knowledge for the promotion of adult education in general and the advance of literacy in particular. Some of the important schemes for the promotion of adult literacy and adult education during the period 1951 to 1980 are described below.

Social Education

This programme was launched soon after independence and became a part of the National Extension Service and Community Development. It consists of (a) literacy (b) extension (c) general education (d) leadership training and (e) social consciousness. It is obvious that social education was a wisely conceived and seriously attempted programme. However, social education did not attempt to integrate literacy with functional training of adults, and the integration between social education and other developmental activities never took root. From the Second Five Year Plan on, the financial provision for social education began to dwindle and before the end of the Third Five Year Plan the painstakingly created structures of social education withered away.

Jana Shikshan Movement

This movement, started in 1959 in the Satara District of Maharastra State, aimed at imparting basic literacy skills within a period of about four months. There was political will behind this programme and it captured the imagination of the rural population. By 1963 it had spread to almost all the districts of Maharastra and become a mass movement. The services of all locally available educated persons, including school children, were mobilised for the programme. Although the achievement of this programme was substantial, the relapse into illiteracy was also massive due to the lack of systematic post-literacy activities. The increase in literacy in Maharastra between 1961-1971 (the period during which the Mohim was organised) was about 10% as against ca. 7% for all India.

Farmers' Functional Literacy

The principal objective of this scheme was to provide a well-organised functional literacy programme for illiterate farmers in the High Yielding Varieties Programme (HYVP) districts which would enable them to obtain both literacy and strategic agricultural skills and information of immediate use to themselves and to HYVP. Started in 1967-68, the project had components of functional literacy, farmers' training and farm broadcasting. The evaluation of this programme has shown that not only did inter-agency linkages seldom get established but that it also suffered from insufficient supervision as well as management bottlenecks. Throughout its duration, the functional literacy component of the total programme lagged behind the agricultural (farmers' training) component. However, the project did make a definite impact on agricultural practices of the participants.

2.2 Present Situation of Basic-Level Education

In the Directive Principles of State Policy included in the Indian Constitution, Article 45 provides:

> The State shall endeavour to provide, within a period of ten years from the commencement of this Constitution, for free and compulsory education for all children until they complete the age of 14 years.

Ten years after the introduction of the Constitution, the position was not very satisfactory. Only 62.4% of the children of the age group 6-11 and just 22.5% of the children of the age group 11-14 were enrolled in Classes I-V and VI-VIII respectively. If all the children of the age group 6-11 had been enrolled in schools at that time, the problem of adult literacy would not have been so acute as it is today.

The total increase during the last decade (1971-1981) was 15.7 million, which is even less than the increase during the 1961-1971 decade. Table 2 indicates enrolment in Classes I-V and its percentage to the population in the age group 6-11 for the years 1976 and 1981.(3)

Table 2

Enrolment in Classes I-V and Percentage of Enrolment to Corresponding Population in the Age Group 6-11 (1976 and 1981)

Year	Enrolment in Classes I-V (millions)			Percentage of enrolment to population		
	Total	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls
1975-1976	65.6	40.6	25.0	83.8	100.4	66.1
1980-1981	72.7	44.6	28.1	83.1	99.0	66.2

Source: 1. Education in India, 1975-1976
2. Selected Educational Statistics 1980-1981

The output data for 1971-1981 indicate that the progress of literacy during this period also depended largely on the progress of primary education.

To achieve the goal of universalisation of primary education, it is essential that all the children enrolled in Class I are retained till they complete the primary stage of education. The problem of dropouts at the primary stage of education is

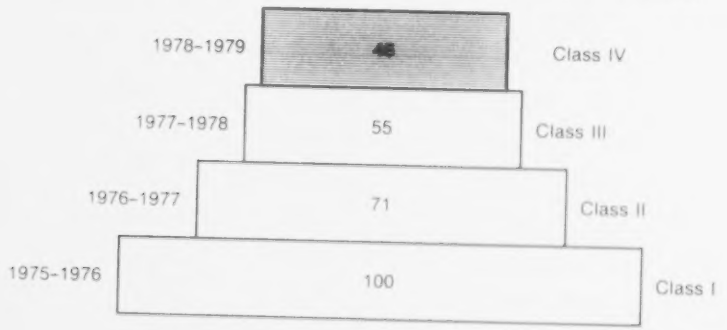
very acute in India. Of the children enrolled in Class I, more than 50% drop out before they reach Class V.

Reliable data for a projection of the real dropout rate for the country on the basis of actual follow-up of specific cohorts is not available. In the absence of such data and non-availability of complete data on the number of primary stage graduates, the dropout rate can be worked out on the basis of a percentage comparison of enrolment in Class V with the enrolment in Class I of four years earlier. Table 5 indicates enrolment in Classes I-V in different years and the percentage enrolment in Class II after one year, Class III after two years, Class IV after three years and Class V after four years.

In 1978-1979 (latest year for which class enrolment is available), the retention rate at the primary stage from Class I to Class V was only 38.3%. It shows that 61.7% of the children enrolled in Class I drop out before completing Class V. More than 25% (25.6) of the children drop out before completing Class II. Forty-four per cent drop out before completing Class III and more than 50% (53.6) drop out before completing Class IV. This high rate of dropout at the primary stage reduces the impact of efforts made to increase the literacy rate. Less than 50% of the children enrolled in Class I are able to acquire literacy skills equivalent to Class IV of the formal system (4). Figure 1 below shows the retention rate of a cohort of 100 children enrolled in Class I.

Figure 1

Retention Rate of Children in Classes II, III and IV After 1, 2 and 3 Years respectively of 100 Enrolled in Class I



The problem of wastage is acute as 64% of the children drop out before reaching grade V. To reduce the dropout rate, strategies have been adopted such as the ungraded school system, which involves 'no detention' up to grade VIII and provision of schooling in all low-population areas with a sufficient number of children.

The enrolment of girls in successive plan periods has been lagging behind that of boys. Their enrolment percentage was 65.9 in 1979-80, which is expected to go up to 81.5 by the end of the Sixth Plan (1984-85). A special enrolment drive has been launched in 1983-84 for the spread of girls' education through a scheme of incentives for excellent performance.

Nine states have been identified as educationally backward on the basis of low school enrolment. Efforts are being made with incentive programmes to increase the coverage in these states.

2.3 New Education

Strategy

The existing formal education programmes in the country have failed to produce the desired results with respect to eradicating illiteracy and enabling the masses to combat their problems and participate effectively in the country's development programmes. This has created the need for a fresh look at the educational system. The new system - known as Nonformal Education - is an out-of-school educational programme which exposes its participants to a process of continuous lifelong learning and attempts to make them functionally capable of solving their own problems.

In the Sixth Five Year Plan, the development and expansion of nonformal and adult education programmes have become one of the educational priorities. The Sixth Five Year Plan's educational strategy is built on the following four assumptions:

- Formal and nonformal education should be correlated and integrated with each other, since in a country like India with enormous educational needs, formal education through full-time schooling alone cannot, by itself, be sufficient for the achievement of major educational objectives.

- Programmes of nonformal education will be developed at all levels for all categories of learners - children, youth and adults.

- Every child in the age group 6-14 shall continue to learn. If necessary a child can change his channel of education from full time to part time according to his needs or convenience.

- The twin programmes of adult education (for the 15 - 35 age group) and nonformal education (for the 6 - 14 age group) will be organised simultaneously. These two programmes will strengthen and support each other, and steps will be taken to coordinate them in all ways possible and at all stages.

Programmes

Till recently, adult education and nonformal education programmes were limited to the imparting of basic literacy skills and the eradication of illiteracy. In the new educational strategy these programmes have been designed to help develop a greater productivity and earning capacity of the participants. A variety of programmes for specific target groups are being organised in rural and urban areas by the state governments and voluntary organisations. These programmes can be divided into four broad categories:

a. Programmes for children and youth with some or no formal schooling:

   - part-time education for non-schoolgoing children in the 6-11 and 11-14 age group.

   - programmes designed to make up educational deficiences, integrating literacy skills with the needs of learners and development activities such as functional literacy for women in the age group 15-40, functional literacy for farmers and farm women, and adult education for persons in the 15-35 age group;

   - equivalency courses for adults.

b. Programmes for improving work performance:

- short-term courses for illiterate and literate farmers, craftsmen, industrial workers and women for upgrading the technical skills and management abilities of small farmers and businessmen;

- handicrafts and home industries: sewing and knitting, embroidery, basket making, soap making, food preservation etc.;

c. Continuing education programmes:

- courses which extend general or vocational schooling;

- correspondence courses, self-learning instruction, evening schools etc;

- libraries and reading rooms.

d. Programmes with emphasis on health and promoting community leadership.

- instruction in health, sanitation, child-care and nutrition education;

- formation of local groups which promote community efforts such as farmers', workers', or cooperative associations;

- short training courses for local leaders and members of organisations.

The working group on Universalization of Elementary Education indicated in its interim report (1978), that the most important factor that inhibited enrolments was poverty, and observed that the vast bulk of non-enrolled children belonged to the weaker and poor sections of society consisting of scheduled castes, scheduled tribes, and landless agricultural labourers. It also observed that another factor which complicated the task was the large proportion of dropouts. The group recommended that every child should continue to learn on a full-time basis if possible and on a part-time basis if necessary.

Special central assistance has been given to the nine educationally backward states - Andhra Pradesh, Assam, Bihar, Jammu and Kashmir Madhya Pradesh, Orissa, Rajasthan, Uttar

Pradesh and West Bengal - since the last quarter of 1979-1980 under the centrally sponsored scheme of nonformal education for elementary age-group children. All the states and five Union Territories are now conducting nonformal education programmes for out-of-school children, including non-starters and dropouts. Coverage of this programme during 1982 was of the order of 2.4 million as compared to 1.2 million during 1981-1982, and the nine educationally backward states had a total coverage of 2.1 million. The target for 1983-1984 is 14,000 additional centres, covering about 0.4 million more children, thereby raising the coverage to 2.8 million. It is expected that the total coverage under the nonformal system in the entire country by the end of the current plan period (1984-1985) will be of the order of about 6 million (including 5.3 million in nine educationally backward states). The total coverage at the primary stage during 1981-1982 to 1984-1985 comes to 10.7 million.

3. LITERACY AND ADULT EDUCATION PROGRAMMES

The national policy of adult education is a result of a series of developments which have taken place over the years since Independence. Several committees, commissions, study groups and task forces have studied the problem of illiteracy in view of the prevailing circumstances at the time and given recommendations for its promotion. The first such committee report, finalized in 1948 and adopted by the Central Advisory Board of Education in its 15th meeting in 1949, recommended elimination of 50% of the illiteracy in the age group 12-45 in five years.

Towards the end of the Second Plan, a deeper concern for the prevailing widespread illiteracy in the country had begun to be expressed. It was realized that a continuing high rate of illiteracy and rapid social and economic progress were not compatible. Consequently the emphasis shifted from social education to a more concerted effort for literacy. The Third Five Year Plan (1961) called for a pooling of resources in manpower and money, mobilization of voluntary workers (including school teachers) and development of literacy work at the block and village levels and in every city and town.

The Fourth Five Year Plan in 1966 proposed launching a mass literacy movement on the lines of the Gram Shikshan Mohim. It also stressed the need for increasing production both in the factory and in the farm. It was emphasized that adult literacy should be made functional and linked up with the work and life of the people. The plan proposed setting up a National Adult Education Board to mobilize the necessary political and popular leadership.

The draft Fifth Five Year Plan emphasized removal of unemployment and provision by the states of the minimum basic needs of the people, e.g. clean drinking water, adult literacy, elementary education, health care, rural roads and rural housing. Adult education - including literacy, functional development, and the creation of awareness among the poor regarding the impediments to their progress and their inherent power to determine their destiny - was identified as a potential factor of the developmental strategy.

A review committee appointed by the Government in 1979 made further recommendations. In conclusion the committee stated:

> The literacy rate has grown at less than 1% a year while population has been growing at over 2% a year. Consequently the number of illiterates in our midst is continually rising, and we have about a third of total illiterates in the world. The objective of universal literacy has to be promoted through the twin provision of universal education for children and a massive programme of adult education.

The Government have accorded a high priority to the Adult Education Programme by including it in the Minimum Needs Programme. The Minimum Needs Programme lays down the urgency for providing social services according to nationally accepted norms within a time-bound programme. Its allocations are earmarked and cannot be diverted to other programmes. Thus it seeks to ensure the necessary provision of resources. Elementary and adult education along with rural health, rural water supply, rural roads, rural electrification, housing assistance to rural landless labourers, environmental improvement of urban slums, and nutrition form part of the Minimum Needs Programme in the Sixth Five Year Plan (1980-1985). Considering the importance of the removal of adult illiteracy for the economic development of the country, a programme for the removal of adult illiteracy has been included in the new 20-point economic programme. The Sixth Plan document envisages coverage of the entire adult illiterate population (which is estimated to be around 110 million by the year 1990).

The Central Advisory Board of Education in its 39th Session held in June 1983 recommended a substantial stepping up of the level of performance under the adult education programme, with community participation on a mass scale, so that the goal of covering the entire illiterate population under this programme could be reached by the year 1990. (5)

3.1 Implementation (of the Literacy Programme)

The pace of implementation of the Adult Education Programme has to be stepped up considerably. For this a single approach or modality will not do. A multifaceted strategy has to be adopted, including 'the diffusion approach', which will help by

promoting primary education; 'the selective intensive approach', which seeks to promote literacy linked to development programmes among the selected occupational groups; and the 'mass approach', which is aimed at making all adult illiterate learners in the age group 15-35 literate by 1990. Each state will prepare its plan of operation keeping in view the magnitude of the problem and predominance of the priority group. The role of the government agencies would be primarily to co-ordinate the activities of the various other agencies and fill in the gaps. The government may have to take almost the entire responsibility wherever other agencies are not functioning.

As recommended by the Review Committee, the policy in respect of use of language for imparting literacy is as follows.

The medium for Stage I should as far as possible be the spoken language of the learners. Where the spoken language is a dialect, learning the regional language should be a part of the programme - if not in Stage I, then at least in the later stages. Where the spoken language is a minority language it should be possible for learners to continue their education in that language. The use of international numerals should be insisted upon. Wherever possible, learners should be encouraged to learn the Roman alphabet to help understand science.

Assumptions, Objectives and Characteristics

The assumption behind the programme is that illiteracy is a serious impediment to the individual's growth and the country's socio-economic progress. The main objective of the programme is to impart literacy, to bring about functional improvement, and to create social and economic awareness. It is characterised by flexibility, relevance and diversification.

Implementing Agencies

The programme is being implemented in the form of a compact project. The state governments have the major responsibility of the implementation of the programme in their states. The other agencies engaged in the task are voluntary organisations, universities and colleges, Nehru Yuvak Kendras (youth organisations), and some government departments in addition to the Education Department.

Duration

The programme for learners lasts 3 years, which has been divided into 3 stages. The first stage is basic literacy and general education consisting of 300-350 hours spread over a year and leads to the literacy level of grade III. The second and third stages are meant for post-literacy and follow-up and run for 150 hours in the second year and 100 hours in the third year. The literacy level expected after the third year is considered more or less equal to the level of grade V.

Resource Support

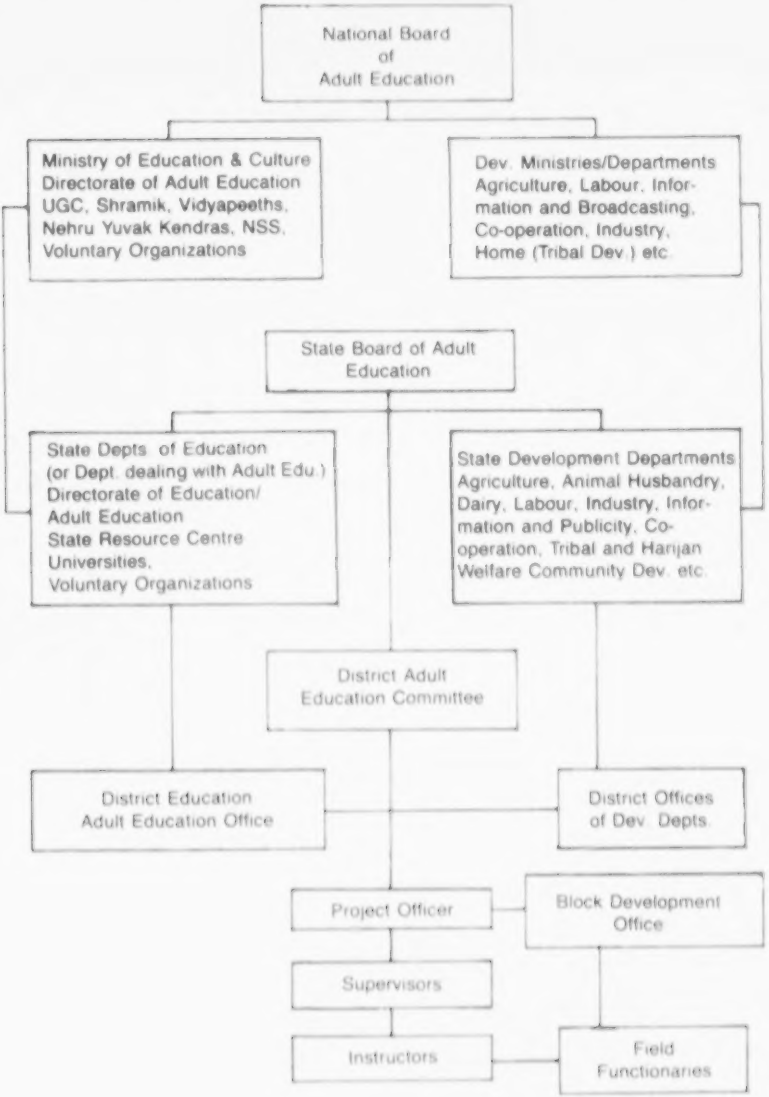
The resource support is provided by the Directorate of Adult Education, the Government of India (National Resource Centre), and fifteen State Resource Centres set up in different states. Where there are no resource centres, the State Directorates of Adult Education have made alternative arrangements. There is a well established monitoring procedure with internal and external evaluation systems, which is operated under the guidance of National Resource Centre. About 40 external evaluation studies have been carried out by specialised research institutions (see Fig. 2 overleaf)

Content and Material

The major content areas of the programme are: (a) basic literacy and numeracy to enable the learners to become self-reliant in handling tasks involving these competencies; (b) functional developments to bring about improvement in practical skills applicable to the work and life of the learners; (c) awareness of the laws and government policies as well as about areas related to working and living.

Materials require to be graded in terms of the content and level of difficulty. At the same time, attention has to be given to the production of effective teaching aids which are simple to prepare and use. Apart from the teaching/learning materials needed for adult education centres, several other materials are required for promotional and motivational purposes. Mass media has also to be used in a complementary capacity. It would also be necessary to involve publishers, writers and librarians in the preparation of sets of materials. There is an incentive scheme operated by the Directorate of Adult Education, Ministry of Education for the production of follow-up materials. Quite a lot of material has been produced under this scheme.

Figure 2: Adult Education Programme
Institutional and Technical Support



The six main ongoing literacy/adult education programmes in the country are the (a) Rural Functioning Literacy Projects (RFLP); (b) State Adult Education Programme (SAEP); (c) Assistance to Voluntary Agencies working in the field of adult education; (d) Adult Education through Nehru Yuvak Kendras; (e) Adult Education through Colleges/Universities, assisted by the University Grants Commission; and (f) Programme of Functional Literacy for Adult Women under the Integrated Child Development Scheme operated by the Ministry of Social Welfare.

Of the 150,849 adult education centres functioning in the country, 41,449 are covered by the two programmes of RFLP and SAEP forming 93.7% of the total number of centres (Appendix II, Table 6). The total enrolment in the adult education centres covered by the monitoring return for the quarter ending March 1983 was 4,356,945.

The Rural Functional Literacy Project is a merger of two previous schemes: the Farmers' Functional Literacy Programme and the Nonformal Education Project for the age-group 15-25 years. The scheme is financed by the Central Government on a cent per cent basis in accordance with the approved financial pattern. (6).

For the implementation of the adult education programme, the operational unit below the district level is the project. The projects sanctioned in 1983 under various schemes of Adult Education were as follows.

Table 1

Adult Education Projects Sanctioned in 1983

Rural Functional Literacy Projects	State Adult Education Programme	Projects by Voluntary Agencies	Projects by Nehru Yuvak Kendras	Projects through university system	Total
316	678	170	144	738	2,046

(Source: Monitoring of the Adult Education Programme - report for the quarter ending March 1983: Directorate of Adult Education, New Delhi)

During the first three years of the Sixth Plan about 100 million adults were covered under the literacy programme. The yearly coverage is as follows:

1980-81	2.5 million actuals
1981-82	3.0 million actuals
1982-83	4.5 million actuals

To achieve the target, about another 100 million adult illiterates are required to be covered from 1983-1984 to 1989-1990. The following phasing of the target was worked out by the Monitoring and Evaluation Unit of the Central Directorate of Adult Education:

1983-1984	-	6.5	1987-1988	-	17.0
1984-1985	-	9.0	1988-1989	-	20.5
1985-1986	-	11.5	1989-1990	-	24.5
1986-1987	-	14.0			

Problems of the First Stage of the Adult Education Programme

The programme in operation is facing difficulties of various kinds. The following are the most important:

- Participation of learners on a continuous basis for a long period is difficult to secure.

- Awareness building and functional upgrading requires effective co-ordination with development departments; this is not available at present to the desired extent.

- It is generally noticed that instructors are not adequately qualified and trained.

- Material production, although decentralised, does not always reflect local needs and concerns.

- Since the projects are run on a common staffing and financial pattern, supervision is weak in areas where communication is difficult.

- Support of the community for the Adult Education Programme and for running the centres leaves much to be desired.

- The programme by and large remains a literacy programme to the neglect of other components of awareness and functionality.

- The mass media has yet to take up its role of giving wide publicity and promoting adult education, as well as directly supporting learning at the centres.

3.2 Nonformal Education for 6-14 Age Group

The formal system of education at the elementary level nearly covers one-third of the population in the age group 6-14. On an average about 70% of the children of the age group 6-14 are out of school. Two-thirds of non-enrolled children are girls. The drop-out rate at the elementary level is as high as 60% of the children enrolled in classes I-V. Hence, the budget required to cover the out-of-school population will be approximately twice that of the present budget. It may not be possible to allocate funds and arrange resources to cover the total population in the age group 6-14 through the formal system of education. Even if we succeed in mobilising funds and resources, it is doubtful that all the out-of-school children will be able to attend the formal schools on the present basis of five hours a day as they help their parents in family vocations, home management and in some areas earn their own livelihood. Furthermore the type of education provided in formal system is not suited to their requirements.

This has created the need for a revised educational system known as nonformal education for out-of-school children. It is free from any rigidity with regard to curriculum, learning materials, teaching methods, venue of instruction, learner's attendance and duration of instructional sessions. The objectives of nonformal education are twofold, viz. to enable willing children to gain entry to formal schools at multiple points and to improve the quality of their life. The National Council of Educational Research and Training has taken up a number of projects (independently or assisted by UNICEF) to achieve the target of universalisation of elementary education. Some of these projects are Primary Education Curriculum Renewal, Developmental Activities in Community Education and Participation, Implications of Children's Media Laboratory, and Comprehensive Access to Primary Education (CAPE). These projects are implemented through the Education Departments of the state governments.

The total number of additional children to be enrolled during the Sixth Five Year Plan will be 32 million (22 million in classes I - V and 10 million in classes VI-VIII) or 6.4 million per year as against an average additional enrolment of 2.6 million a year over the last four years. Out of the additional enrolment target of 22 million children in classes I-V, 10 million will be enrolled in full-time schools and 12 million children in part-time nonformal education classes. At the middle school stage an additional 10 million children will be enrolled - 6 million in full-time schools and 4 million in part-time non-formal education. This is a task of incredible magnitude.

Table 4

Availability of Educational Facilities and Targets of Enrolment among 6-14 age group in Sixth Five Year Plan (1978-83)

(in millions)

	Boys	Girls	Total
1. Population in 1982-83			
Age group 6-11	43.7	41.3	85.0
Age group 11-14	25.7	24.3	50.0
Total:	69.4	65.6	135.0
2. Enrolment in 1977-78			
Classes I-V	43.5	28.0	71.3
Classes VI-VIII	12.5	6.0	18.5
Total:	55.8	34.0	89.8
3. Additional children required to be enrolled to achieve universal education			
Age group 6-11	0.4	13.3	13.7 (22.0)
Age group 11-14	13.2	18.3	31.5 (10.0)
Total:	13.6	31.6	45.2 (32.0)

Note: Figures in parenthesis indicate realistic targets to be achieved as recommended by the Working Group on Universalisation of Elementary Education.

Source: Working Group on Universalisation of Elementary Education. Interim Report, Ministry of Education and Culture, Government of India, New Delhi, 1978.

4. POST-LITERACY ACTIVITIES

4.1 Concept Development

The Committee on Post-Literacy and Follow-up Programmes (also known as JP NAIK Committee), set up by the National Board of Adult Education mentioned that neglect of post-literacy and follow-up programmes can be perilous. The past experiences in the country show that although awareness regarding the importance of post-literacy programmes was not lacking they were seldom systematically organised. This has been one of the main reasons for the rather limited impact of the adult education programmes in the past. The post-literacy programmes, therefore, should be given as much importance as the regular adult education activity.

Viewed from this expanded concept of post-literacy activities, the adult education and literacy programmes cannot be a one-time programme of 9 to 10 months, or 300 to 350 hours' duration. It must be a part of a continuous process of education leading to action which in turn requires further education. The post-literacy and follow-up programmes will mean that the learners will reinforce their literacy, will gain a more critical understanding of the environment and will become more aware of the impediments blocking their way.

The Committee feels the need to study the various aspects of these three communication choices in much greater detail than has been possible so far. Hence, without underestimating the importance of these means of communication and learning, the present recommendations give some details mainly in regard to the use of printed media. (7)

It should be recognised that the printed word has the potentiality not only of aiding retention and use of literacy and numeracy, it can also become the medium for both functional development and awareness building. In connection with the printed media, the following specific suggestions have been made:

- In several cases it may not be possible for the learners to achieve self-reliance in literacy and numeracy during the regular programme. Provision should, therefore, be made for an intermediate stage at which the learners would continue guided study.

- The Directorate of Adult Education and SRCs should be called upon to prepare lists of suitable materials for post-literacy programmes. Annotated bibliographies should be published by the Ministry of Education and the state governments in various languages for use by the project agencies.

- Various departments which publish extension materials intended for use by neo-literates should be asked to review their existing extension literature and to publish material which is really suitable for the neo-literates.

- While it is necessary to provide appropriate incentives to writers and publishers to create relevant materials for this programme, emphasis should be laid on stimulation of creative energies in districts, cities, blocks and villages. Journals and wall papers brought out for neo-literates should also have local relevance.

- Popular movements need to be generated in order to popularise science, involve creative writers and mobilise local efforts for the establishment of libraries. There is much to learn from Kerala in this respect.

It is essential to provide guidelines for materials to be used for post-literacy and follow-up programmes. The principles enshrined in the Preamble of the Constitution should be treated as the basic guidelines regarding the suitability of materials. In addition, areas of national concern might be identified, e.g.:

- national and social integration;

- respect for all religions and fostering of the common cultural heritage;

- democracy, freedom, patriotism and self-reliance;

- equality of opportunity and status, and freedom from exploitation;

- inculcation of the scientific spirit and fight against superstition and blind belief;

- protection of the right of children, and observance of the small-family norm; and

- environmental conservation and enrichment.

The JP Naik Committee has also clearly spelt out the objectives of post-literacy programmes as follows:

- stabilising of literacy skills;

- enabling those learners who want to join a formal system to acquire basic knowledge sufficient to achieve this objective;

- helping the learners to take advantage of various facilities created by governmental and non-governmental agencies;

- enabling the people of India to enjoy their rich cultural heritage, which has been a source of inspiration to people since time immemorial;

- helping people to take greater part in socio-economic and political activities.

4.2 Programmes and Activities

The post-literacy and follow-up activities in the past, have tended to be confined to reading reinforcement and public library type of activities. Although these activities will continue to be important, the various other means of communication will also be harnessed for the creation of a dynamic learning environment. Therefore, in addition to the printed word, emphasis is also to be placed on other available means such as:

- traditional and folk forms of communication, e.g. puppet-shows, folk theatre, katha; (8)

- sophisticated technological media, e.g. radio, television, films, slides;

- group discussions and other means of group action, e.g. sports and games, village planning, and social

service activities for improvement of the environment; and

- continuing-education schools.

It is essential to realise that literacy is part of a process of lifelong education which begins before literacy is acquired and continues through the medium of print and other means after literacy skills have been learnt.

Several agencies and organisations are already using various post-literacy strategies to help neo-literates continue their learning. The impact of these strategies has not been measured so far; it may, however, be important to describe some of these here in order to give a general idea of the efforts being undertaken in this area.

4.3 Supplementary Reading Materials

This is one of the earliest strategies adopted in India to provide material of various types to enable neo-literates to continue learning new skills and knowledge.

A competition scheme called 'National Prize Competition for Literature for Neo-Literates' for encouraging authors to write for neo-literates has been in operation since 1954. To date nearly 800 awards have been granted. The material is written in all the national languages of the country. Most of the material is in the form of small books (not exceeding 50-60 pages) printed in appropriate type. The contents include health; agriculture and related occupations; social, cultural and economic problems; folk tales, etc.

The Government of India advertises its prize scheme in leading newspapers of the country. The manuscripts received are examined by experts from the point of view of language and theme. The authors whose books are selected are given a very nominal prize of nearly US $ 120. In order to provide additional support to authors, the Government purchases 1500 copies after fixing their price. The books are sent to adult education libraries and other agencies.

Out of the 65 prizes, 40 are earmarked for manuscripts on topics of general education and 25 manuscripts on topics of family welfare.

Purpose

The purpose of this competition is to stimulate and to encourage creative writers to prepare suitable and interesting materials for persons with limited reading abilities.

The ultimate aim of this programme is to create a 'learning society'. This objective can only be achieved if persons with limited reading abilities are prevented from relapsing into illiteracy and are led beyond the initial literacy level through suitably designed reading materials. This will broaden their attitudes towards their surroundings - physical and social - and will motivate them to play an active role in their social and civic life. The literature should also help to increase the efficiency of the adults in their work.

The term "persons with limited reading abilities" may, for the purpose of this competition, be understood to mean those who have become literate either through adult literacy classes or through other formal or nonformal systems and whose level of literacy skills is similar to that attained at the end of the primary education stage. While submitting their entries, the authors are requested to keep this in view.

Manuscripts are accepted in any of the following fourteen Indian languages: Assamese, Bengali, Gujarati, Hindi, Kannada, Kashmiri, Marathi, Malayalam, Oriya, Punjabi, Sindhi, Tamil, Telugu, and Urdu.

Guidelines for Writers

The manuscripts should be in a simple language and style which persons with limited reading abilities can easily understand. The language of common usage in the areas concerned should be used. The writing should also have literary excellence. The manuscripts should focus on the objectives of the programme of adult education. Problems and issues of current interest and of the local, regional and national relevance, should be highlighted. Manuscripts on family welfare should highlight the importance of this subject in the interest of the child, the mother, the family and the nation.

The manuscripts should be adequately illustrated and presented in an interesting and lively manner so as to hold the interest of the readers. In case the illustrations do not form a part of the manuscript, the author should give a list of proposed illustrations. In this case it is the responsibility of the author to have the illustrations approved by the Directorate of Adult Education before publication in the event that an award is granted.

Keeping in view the main purpose of these manuscripts, the length of each entry should not exceed 50 foolscap pages, typed neatly in double-space or legibly written on one side of the paper. A wide margin should also be kept.

The Directorate of Adult Education purchases 1500 copies of each of the prize-winning manuscripts when printed. The copies are distributed to rural libraries, adult education centres, community and family welfare centres through the state governments. The purchase is made at a reasonable price fixed by the Directorate of Adult Education. Authors and publishers of the prize-winning manuscripts are required to submit five specimen copies of the printed books within a period of two years from the date of announcement of the results of the competition. This period can be relaxed at the discretion of the Director of the Directorate of Adult Education. The specimen copies are required for fixing the price and subsequent purchase of the printed copies.

For every entry, a fee of Rs. 5/- (nearly 0.5 US $) has to be paid.

Writers' workshops are organised both by government and non-governmental agencies with a view to developing reading materials for new readers. These workshops have two purposes: (a) to train new writers, school teachers, extension workers, freelance writers, and government officials, who have a reasonable level of motivation for writing materials for new readers, in the art of expository writing and (b) to procure suitable manuscripts as per requirements of new readers.

Different models of writers' workshops are in vogue for writing materials for new readers. At Literacy House, potential writers, subject-matter specialists, adult educators, and illustrators are invited to these workshops. The materials are written and tested by the team during the workshop itself. The

duration of such workshops ranges from two to four weeks. With the KANFED (Kerala Association for Nonformal Education and Development), Bengal Social Service League and Gujarat Adult Education Association models the prospective writers are invited into the workshop for a short period to discuss the form and content of the materials. They disperse and write materials as per their convenience. After one or two months they again meet for a short while along with their manuscripts for finalisation. In another model the manuscripts are directly procured from the writers by the publisher. These manuscripts are reviewed by a panel of experts and finally edited for printing.

Besides the writers' workshops there are other sources which provide manuscripts for post-literacy and lifelong education reading materials. These sources include: established writers, freelance writers, adult education field functionaries, State Resources Centres, private publishers, government officials and prize schemes for writers.

The Government of India has taken a number of steps to promote publication of reading materials for new readers. These steps include - besides the prize schemes for writers and publishers - the creation of writers' guilds and cooperatives, national book trusts, a network of state resource centres, bulk purchase of books for libraries and literacy education programmes, allotment of newsprint paper for printing, and subsidies to cover printing costs.

Adult Education in India has visualised a two year post-literacy programme in continuation of the first year basic literacy programme. It is proposed that in the first phase of post-literacy, i.e. the second year of the Adult Education Programme, graded textual material would be provided to the learners for a guided study with the help of an instructor. It would specifically aim at remediation, retention and continuation of literacy and basic education. In the second phase, the learners would be provided with a variety of supplementary reading materials, the thematic and linguistic contents of which would be controlled and simplified. These would provide a smooth transition to general reading materials available in the open market and libraries. To encourage women's participation, textual and supplementary materials for women, such as on mother and child care, home management, nutrition, etc. would be made available.

4.4 Rural Libraries

Libraries play a positive role in the retention of literacy, the spread of knowledge and the promotion of self-education. The role of libraries has changed from that of mere repositories of books to that of creating reading habits, organising continuing education programmes and catering to the needs even of those who do not come to their portals. In the past the public library system mainly served the comparatively well-off sections of the society.

Since most of our illiterate people live in rural villages, the condition of rural libraries in different parts of the country deserves special study in the context of the Adult Education Programme, as well as the role expected to be played by these libraries in meeting the needs of the rural population. The situation in regard to rural libraries varies from state to state: (8)

Organisation in the regional level

a. Tamil Nadu, Andhra Pradesh, and Karnataka

These states have adopted library legislation with provision for a library cess and set up autonomous Local or District Library Authorities. The District Library Authorities, for their part, have established branch libraries in the urban and rural areas of the districts. Thus, a branch library may be found at a Taluka centre, a Panchayat Centre or a rural centre having a population of about five thousand. The branch libraries form part of the district library system. A branch library on its turn may establish a book delivery station at a smaller centre, usually in a school paying a nominal stipend to a school teacher. The Union Territory of Pondicherry is also influenced by these states.

b. Maharashtra and West Bengal

These two states have also adopted library legislation, but without the provision of a library cess. Both the states encourage the development of library service by private initiative, through a planned operation of the grant-in-aid system. However, there are many state-financed and sponsored town and rural libraries in West Bengal which form a class by themselves. The recognised public libraries of Maharashtra may be regarded as aided libraries. In both states library service has largely

spread to the block and Panchayat level. Whether sponsored or aided by the Government, the condition of rural libraries in Mahrashtra and West Bengal is better than many other states - due mainly to the patronisation of the educated middle class.

c. Kerala, Gujarat

In Kerala and Gujarat, library service has also developed by private initiative. The state governments support their urban and rural libraries by an elaborate system of grant-in-aid to different categories of libraries. Library service has spread to most villages having a population of 5,000 or more.

d. Assam, Jammu & Kashmir and Tripura

These state governments have taken responsibility for establishing and developing libraries. The network of libraries has spread to the sub-division or Tensil level. Such is also the case in some of the Union Territories, e.g. Arunachal Pradesh and Mizoram. Library service at the block and Panchayat level are being developed through voluntary organisations. In view of the smallness of the administrative units, library coverage may be said to have reached the rural centres having a population of 10,000 to 20,000.

e. Rajasthan, Punjab and Haryana

These state governments are also taking initiatives to promote public library services. But the progress is somewhat slow and the coverage has remained limited to the district headquarters and municipal centres. Meghalaya, Sikkim and the Union Territories of Andaman & Nicobar Islands and Dadra & Nagar Haveli may be grouped in this category.

f. Bihar, Madhya Pradesh and Uttar Pradesh

Library service is weakest in these states, where even the district level libraries are not properly equipped to render services. Most of the libraries are privately owned and run by voluntary organisations with paltry sums of aid provided by the respective state governments. Though large in number, the libraries lack the basic minimum standards of accommodation, staff and service. The Union Territory of Lakshadweep may be grouped in this category.

g. Delhi and Chandigarh

The Union Territories of Delhi and Chandigarh are rather city states with a high rate of literacy. Delhi is covered by the network of libraries provided by Delhi Public Library, and Chandigarh is well served by T.S. Central State Library.

With so much diversity in the organisation of library services and such a great extent of illiteracy in the country - particularly at the rural level - it is impossible to visualise a single or uniform strategy for post-literacy, follow-up and continuing education.

Mobile Libraries

Where library service has not reached the rural areas, mobile library service has been tried by some organisations. This model has many variations, using the bicycle motor van as the means of transport. Literacy House, Lucknow serves many villages at minimum cost. Special devices to carry the material to the users and display techniques have been developed to make optimum use of this facility.

In order to cover large numbers of clientele, libraries are also taken to the new learners in their weekly market, thus enabling villagers from more than one village to take advantage of these facilities.

The Karnataka State Adult Education Council, on the other hand, uses specified buildings at permanent locations for housing its libraries. These buildings are normally public buildings which can be used after office hours by the new learners. Sometimes local self government institutions agree to provide buildings fully for this purpose. It is worth mentioning here that the facilities of libraries are not confined to the new learner alone. Any villager interested in reading the books could borrow these.

4.5 Continuing Education for Readers with Limited Ability

The Committee on Post-literacy and Follow-up Programmes of the National Board of Adult Education has developed six possible models for the organisation of post-literacy activities.

Model 1: Village Continuing Education Centre

A Continuing Education Centre is organised to serve persons who have completed the Adult Education Programme of 9 to 10 months duration from 2 or more adult education centres in the same village. A local educated person looks after activities of the continuing education centre on a part-time basis. For this he gets a monthly allowance of Rs. 20 to Rs. 30. The activities of the centre include: reinforcement of literacy skills, running the library, and motivating adults to appear in examinations of the formal education system.

Model 2: Continuing Education at the Adult Education Centre

This model applies to those villages where only one adult education centre has been organised. It is envisaged that continuing education activities would be organised through the instructor of an adult education centre for persons who have completed literacy training in the preceding course. For this he gets an additional allowance of Rs. 10.00 per month besides the normal honorarium of Rs. 50.00 per month for running the new course.

Model 3: Mobile Library and Continuing Education

Model 3 envisages one full-time continuing education worker (CEW) to serve a compact area having 14 to 15 adult education centres. Assuming that the number of villages in which these centres are located is 10, it should be possible for the CEW to visit each village at least 3 to 4 times a month. He can also arrange short-term training courses on subjects of special interest to learners.

Model 4: Diversification of Existing Village Libraries

A large number of villages in the country already have village libraries. Post-literacy activities in these villages are organised through those in charge of the respective libraries. At present these libraries do not primarily serve the neo-literates. Those in charge are being trained to serve the learning needs of the neo-literates. In addition to the provision of appropriate services for the continuing use of literacy skills, the village libraries also organise programmes such as functional education, social service, and recreation.

Model 5: Needs-based Continuing Education Courses

The Model envisages two types of courses, viz. V or VIII class certificate course and vocational courses. The first category of courses is organised in the local school with the help of the Department of School Education. The Department lays down instructions for the organisation of examinations equivalent to formal examination of the same level.

The vocational courses are organised for persons who have completed primary education, or approximately ten months of adult-education course work. These courses include family life, cooking, child care, domestic accounts, food and seed preservation, environment enrichment, poultry, bee-keeping, as well as other types of village industries. The duration of these courses ranges from 3 days to 3 months. With the help of a continuing education worker, the participants themselves identify the suitable instructors. The stipendium of the trainer varies from Rs. 30 for a course of 3 days to Rs. 500 for a course of 3 months.

Model 6: Follow-up Activities through Students

In this model, follow-up activities are undertaken by students as a part of the National Service Scheme of socially useful productive work (SUPW) at the + 2 stage. Each student is expected to cover 12 to 15 families, visiting each family at least twice a month. Besides distributing books, the students are mobilised for creating a learning environment in both rural and urban areas.

Summary

The Committee emphasised that none of these models are intended to confine their activities only to reading and writing; they are envisaged as units for organisation of composite programmes. The responsibility of organising post-literacy activities rests with the project agency organising the adult education centres.

The first two models provide for guided learning in regular continuing education centres. Models 3 and 4 serve the purpose of reaching the learners through a library system. Through the third model the learners are provided with reading materials in their homes. The fourth model recommends the opening of adult education sections in the rural libraries. Model 5

offers the opportunity to prepare for certificate courses for grades V to VIII, and also needs-based short-term courses. The sixth model is meant for adoption by the student community and visualises a reading-material service catering twice a month to the learners at their homes. Hardly any state has taken up the last two models so far.

4.6 Extension Literature

In India various development departments and agencies are producing a considerable amount of material for the use of extension workers and potential beneficiaries. Most of this literature is available free of cost and is part of the effort on the part of the agencies to convey certain key messages to the people. Although it is claimed by these agencies that most of the material is meant to be used by the literate and semi-literate population, in practice it has been found that new learners are unable to use this material unaided. So the adult education workers now study the contents first and then try to convey it themselves. Among the agencies producing this material are agricultural departments, health departments and family planning departments.

Recently, efforts have been made to involve the experts of these agencies to produce their material in collaboration with the adult education departments of the various states. The Directorate of Adult Education has undertaken a small project to simplify and print some of the material being produced by these agencies in order for it to be used by them as a prototype for their future production.

Workshops are organised from time to time by the Directorate of Adult Education and State Resource Centres to produce materials through joint efforts. These workshops are a regular feature of the programme for producing materials for neo-literates. In addition, adult education workers are also being encouraged to use the illustrative materials (posters, charts, etc.) and provide feedback on them to these agencies.

4.7 Rural Newspapers

Several states and even adult education associations have started bringing out weekly/fortnightly newspapers for the new learners. The newspapers give them a feeling of joining the

ranks of the educated. The papers deal with local problems of new learners, some of whom have a chance of seeing their own ideas in print. In several villages, walls are painted black in order to write news items of interest to the villagers. (9)

Rural newspapers have long been used to reinforce literacy skills as well as to upgrade awareness of the masses. According to an estimate made in 1966 by Bhabani Sengupta, the former editor of *Yojana*, the total non-urban circulation of newspapers in India was about 4,140,000. In other words, there was not even one copy for every village. In the absence of any national breakdown it is difficult to say which villages get how many newspapers. There are about 8,000 small newspapers operating in and for the rural areas. These include dailies of tabloid size, weeklies and bi-weeklies. Most of these papers are in Hindi and are published in different parts of the country. Some also appear in other languages, such as Gujarati, Bengali, Marathi, Urdu, Telugu, Malayalam, Oriya, Tamil and Kannada. Malhan writes that "there are yet other papers which are published in the languages of various small and ethnically distinct groups like Konkani, Manipuri, Lushai, Khasi, Santhali, Garo, Dogri, Tulu, Angani Naga, Tankhu Naga, Thada, to mention a few". However, no systematic data is available to indicate the readability levels of these newspapers and the suitability of their contents for development journalism.

Farm periodicals in India have contributed towards the growth of development journalism. The first farm periodical to be published from Agra about six decades ago was Krishi Sudhar (in Hindi), which was followed by a few in South Indian languages. The government agriculture departments started publishing farm magazines in 1931, and in 1938 the Government of Bihar started the farm magazine Gaon, which served the farmers for many years. Soon after independence, the Indian Council of Agricultural Research started a popular farm magazine in Hindi called Kheti. In 1948, the Government of West Bengal started Basundhara, its periodical for farmers. Notable unofficial ventures were *Krishi Jagat* (1946) and the weekly *Sewagram* (1953), which continue to serve the rural readers. The Maharashtra Government farm magazine, *Shetkari* (Marathi) has a circulation of 120,000 copies. Today, there are about 250 farm periodicals published in India, of which about 190 are in Hindi and other regional languages. In the absence of a readability survey on these magazines, it is difficult to say anything about their suitability for neo-literate learners. Mathur remarks that although there are 21 agricultural universities and 33 research

institutes of the ICAR, there seems to be an almost total absence of concern about using farm periodicals as media for technology transfer.

Apart from the 8,000 small newspapers operating in and for rural areas, some sporadic efforts have been made to bring out monthly bulletins and periodicals for the neo-literates and others having limited reading ability. The Karnataka State Adult Education Council's *Belaku (Light)* is a very popular weekly for neo-literates and has been in the adult education scene for a long time. During the fifties and sixties, the Community Development Programme accelerated such efforts. The Junagarh Community Project in Kalahandi district, Orissa, used to bring out a foolscap-size mimeographed publication called *Ama Yojana Katha (Our Project News)* for the post-literacy social education programme. It became very popular immediately after the first issue was circulated but after the community project phase was over a few years later, it died a sudden death. The Barpali Village Service, a multi-purpose village development project of the American Friends Service Committee in Barpali, Sambalpur district, Orissa used to bring out a quarto-size mimeographed monthly in the 1959s called *Janiba Katha (Things to Know)* for the social education programme during the ten-year life of the project. The Literacy House, Lucknow, has also been very active in this endeavour. There are many agencies, both government and private, which are bringing out such publications for the neo-literate learners. The Directorate of Advertising and Visual Publicity of the Government of India brings out a fortnightly wall newspaper, *Hamara Desh, (Our Country)* in Hindi and other regional languages. The latest one is *Jago Aur Jagao (Awake and Make Others Awake)*, also in Hindi, which is published by the Indian Adult Education Association.

After the resource consortium - National Resource Centre and State Resource Centres for Adult Education - was organised in India in the late 1970s, the need for a rural press for the post-literacy and follow-up programme was keenly felt all over the country. The State Resource Centres, without waiting for any miracle to happen in this field, started work in this direction out of their limited financial resources and, within a period of the last four to five years, have come out with weekly and monthly bulletins and monthly wall newspapers which have proved their worth in the post-literacy and follow-up programme.

Belaku (Kannada) of the Karnataka SRC and *Ujala* and *Ghar Grahasthy* (Hindi) of the Literacy House, Lucknow, have continued

with their success and popularity. *Chalti Jagat* (Bengali) of the West Bengal State Resource Centre (SRC), printed in newsprint in a tabloid format, gives the appearance of a newspaper and is highly popular in the rural areas of West Bengal. *Samvadini* (Marathi) of the Maharashtra SRC is equally popular. *Nattu Velicham (Light of the Village)*, the monthly wall newspaper in Malayalam of the Kerala SRC, in 'multi-colour offset', is very popular in the rural areas. *Halchal (News)*, the monthly bulletin in Oriya, and *Tundabaida (Word of Mouth)*, the monthly wall newspaper in Oriya of the Orissa SRC, are the first of their kind in the state and have proved to be very successful as follow-up reading materials. The contents of these publications are development-oriented and have the required readability for the neo-literate learners. In spite of their success and popularity, most of these publications are prototype materials and need to be mass produced by the state governments to cater to the needs of their respective populations.

4.8 Local Study and Action Groups

Though there are some voluntary organisations organising such activities, the agency which is doing this most systematically is the following:

Nehru Yuvak Kendras (Nehru Youth Centres) (NYKs)

This is a scheme devised roughly 10 years ago by the Government of India. It aims at the development of out-of-school youth in rural areas through programmes of education, community service, games, etc. When NAEP was launched, NYKs became an important agency for the implementation of the Programme. Recognising the emphasis on awareness building and group action, the activities of NYKs began to centre around what are called "Chetana Sanghs" (CS). A CS, which literally means an organisation for awareness, begins with recreation and discussion and then moves on to develop a strong literacy component. After the conclusion of the literacy phase a CS does not get dispersed; it continues its activities for continuing education and community development projects through group action. A CS is organised by a village youth, and its activities are not restricted to persons who regularly participate in literacy classes. To the extent possible, the entire village community is involved. The content of a typical CS can be described as follows:

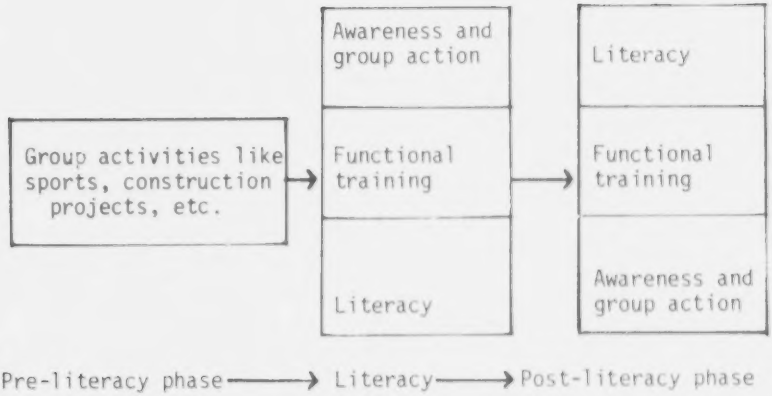


Figure 3

Chetana Sangh Model of Literacy and Post-literacy Continuum

The CS model of literacy and post-literacy continuum has been adopted by some other voluntary agencies as well. The projects run by the Government and the State of Bihar (which has won Unesco's IRA Literacy Award) also attempt to use the CS method of putting emphasis on continued associations of learners around awareness building and group action projects.

There are 250 NYKs in India and practically all function through a cluster of CSs organised with the help of supervisors engaged from amongst educated youth who volunteer to take up this work for a small fee. There is considerable emphasis on the training of the persons who are in charge of NYKs, the volunteer supervisors and the CS organisers.

The quality of the programme of NYKs varies greatly, depending mainly on the initiative and drive of those in charge. Some analytical observations can be made in respect of the NYK programme:

- CS seems to be feasible as an organisational as well as a learning strategy. Special note should be made of the use of a local youth worker for the organisation of the literacy and post-literacy

continuum and the emphasis on both literacy learning and group action.

- The weakness of the programme is due to the inherent difficulties connected with a government-run organisation. Appointment of personnel can be routinely and unimaginatively done, supplies and funds can be delayed, and so on. Besides, in the Indian context, there is some inconsistency about a government-run programme attempting to raise popular consciousness.

- An additional difficulty is about non-availability to CSs of suitable materials. Neither State Directorates of Adult Education nor the Central Government have been able to provide sufficient learning materials, and the NYKs have not developed the capability to produce their own materials. Consequently, retention and reinforcement of literacy skills have not received sufficient attention.

It also needs to be emphasized that India uses other strategies for post-literacy as well. These include newspapers, wall newspapers, radio, TV, and folk media.

4.9 Utilization of Traditional Folk Media

Folk media plays a very important role in the lives of villagers. Certain organisations and individuals in the country are engaged in keeping this media alive and using it to bring about important attitudinal changes in the people. A case study by A. Bordia of such an organisation is given below: (10)

Roopayan Sansthan, Bornndha. (RS)

Established in the early 60s, this institution is situated in a remote rural area, at least a hundred miles from any city. The objective of RS is to preserve the folk forms of culture and to publish and disseminate the writings of its director - Vijaidan Detha, referred to by many as India's Anton Chekhov. RS leaders are deeply conscious that the modern literate-scientific culture is causing an atrophy of the traditional and folk cultural forms and the time may not be far away when those forms cease to exist. And since there is little use of materials in those forms, they may become extinct. RS hopes, on the one

hand, to create appropriate "archives" of those forms for their historical and educational value and, on the other, it strives to help the urban "educated" people to understand their humanistic value in the modern insensate cultural situation.

The archival work of RS comprises (1) several hundreds of hours of recorded folk music; (2) similar recordings of ballads and folk tales; (3) collection of scroll paintings; (4) collection of puppets; (5) a museum of folk musical instruments; (6) compilation of a treasury of folk proverbs with examples of its usage, etc. On the publication side RS has brought out the monumental *Batan-ri-Phulwari*, which is a collection of Vijaidan Detha's writings in the Rajasthani language and based on Rajasthan's folklore. RS has already published thirteen volumes of about 500 pages each and expects to bring out seven more. Each volume carries an interpretive learned essay by Komal Kothari, an internationally renowned ethnologist who also works at RS. RS has also published several small booklets in simple language for the neo-literates. In his writings Detha has given a contemporary meaning to the age-old folk tales. He amuses and educates the people through stories which they already know but in which they can now recognise a local bully, a corrupt politician, an unbending bureaucrat, a greedy money-lender, etc. Detha creates consciousness among people without depressing them, motivates them to read without manipulating them, and traces the source of their strength without seeming superior to them.

While RS does its educational work through its publications and face-to-face story-telling, it lays emphasis on the understanding of the folk media as the extant means of learning for a vast majority of the rural population. Therefore, it has been trying to create a new synthesis between literacy and folk culture. This attempt takes the following forms:

- folk music and dancing programmes in literacy classes.

- frequent organisation of folk theatre activities, as well as use of puppetry for the learners;

- use of folk stories (with the contemporary perspective given by Detha) as learning texts, in addition to functional education;

- introduction of alphabets and words in the drawings traditionally made by people on walls and floors; and

- use of radio and TV as a means of widening the participation in folk cultural forms (without reducing the functional and scientific content of educational broadcasts).

It may not be meaningful to subject the activities of RS to the usual analysis. Its innovativeness, vision and usefulness is generally accepted. It should also be accepted that widening the application of this approach has serious difficulties, for there simply aren't many institutions like RS, nor many authors like Detha. But folklore and ballads, as well as folk music and dancing, exist in all communities. And a basic question is: should the literacy and post-literacy programmes be seen as a supplementary to the existing forms of learning, or a substitution for them?

Report of a University of Bombay Workshop on Folk Forms

Adult Education and National Service Scheme cells of certain universities and colleges have also shown great interest in the use of traditional media in the Adult Education Programme. Bombay University recently organised a workshop to discuss various aspects of the use of these media. In fact, the workshop prepared students to use them for their own post-literacy work in the villages. The following is a report of the workshop conducted by Bombay University: (11)

The utility of folk arts in strengthening the National Service Scheme (NSS), as well as NAEP, is beyond doubt. Folk arts are deeply rooted in the minds of the people, and the very form captures the imagination of the common man. Using these folk forms with social content will surely continue to help facilitate NSS and NAEP programmes.

The Centre for Adult Education of the University of Bombay thought of organising some Kalapathaks (cultural squads) of college students. The centre decided to take up this activity on an experimental basis. Accordingly, four student groups from four colleges, viz. Ruparel College, Matunga, Bombay; Burhani College, Mazgaon, Bombay; Dr Ambedkar College, Mahad, Dist. Kolaba; and R.P. Gogate College, Ratnagiri, Dist. Ratnagiri were identified. Each group consisted of twelve students, in-

cluding two instrumentalists.

Scripts dealing with social topics were given to all these groups by the Centre. The scripts were written for various folk forms, e.g. folk song, folk drama and folk dance.

A workshop for this Kalapathak project was organised to familiarize all the groups with various aspects of the project. A demonstration of the scripts was also arranged. The following folk forms were demonstrated in a two-hour presentation by the Kalapathak from Mahad College:

- Gana: Gana is a song used in the praise of Lord Ganapati. Here Lord Ganapati was praised and an appeal was made that we the farmers urge you to give us strength to work more and more in our fields and achieve prosperity.

- Bharud No. 1: Bharud is a musical presentation in which a metaphor is used to convey a message. The person accompanying the singer explains the metaphor through questions, answers and comments. In this particular Bharud the metaphor of jaundice was used for ignorance. The singer says, "I am suffering from the jaundice of ignorance". And the following lines describe how he is harassed by the jaundice and also how it is cured through adult education.

- Bharud No.2: This presentation concerned drinking. The metaphor was that of an aunt who enters the village and ruins every person there.

- Gondhal: This is a musical presentation in homage of the goddess Ambabai. In the Gondhal presented, the importance of learning various skills for the betterment of life was emphasized.

- Group Song: In this, the unity of villagers to secure the development of the village was depicted.

- Rasik Vandana: In this musical presentation homage was paid to the audience. The song focuses upon the innate strength of human beings and their potentiality to liberate themselves.

- Lokanatya No.1: A Lokanatya is a folk drama depicting characters and situations with which the audience can identify. This Lokanatya, entitled 'Ganapati Bhappa Moraya', depicted the corruption of rich people and exploitation of the poor.

- Lokanatya No.2: This was entitled 'Prayatnati Parameshwar'. It focused on the evils of blind faith.

The entire programme was highly enjoyed by the participants. These demonstrations were not only entertaining but also enlightening since the participants could actually see how these programmes would look when presented. They could also experience the stage potential and the audience appeal of these programmes.

Thereafter there was a discussion session led by a resource person. He initiated the discussion by saying these programmes should really come from the people in the community. Of course, this is not possible this year but gradually we should see to it that the presentation of the programmes is switched over to the community, the students' role being that of facilitators. The participants felt the programmes presented by the Mahad College group were good and had the desirable social content in them. But as regards diction and clarity of the dialogues they were not happy. This point subsequently led to the discussion on the use of loudspeakers. It was pointed out that using a microphone properly is an art. But then a NSS Programme Officer of R.P. Gogate College, Ratnagiri, cautioned that we will have to present our programmes without any microphone in many places. Hence, all artists should take care that their dialogues are clear and sufficiently loud to reach the back of the audience. It was pointed out that delivery of dialogues with proper diction and intonation is a matter of practice and, hence, the student artists participating in this project should provide sufficient practice in connection with this.

5. CONCLUSION

In India, there are about 50 million non-school-going children in the age group 6-14 and 369 million adult illiterates. Most of them live in rural areas. Hence, in any plan for rural development systematic programmes for eradicating illiteracy must occupy a prominent place. The twin programmes of adult education and nonformal education for the 6-14 age group are being organised simultaneously to cover 100 million adult illiterates and 32 million additional children during the next five years. Programmes of such great dimensions cannot be run by the government alone. For effective implementation of these programmes an effort is being made to utilise all available resources such as universities, *nehru yuvak kendras*, national service scheme volunteers, and the central and state governments. However, experience has shown that for the success of a nation-wide illiteracy eradication programme there are certain preconditions to be met: political will and commitment, rapid execution of the programme, careful planning, flexibility and decentralisation, a network of library services, effective monitoring and evaluation, systematic planning of follow-up services, and the organisation of the programme as a mass movement.

It is clear from the document that post-literacy activities in general have been given considerable importance in adult and nonformal education programmes in India. They are being organised in different forms by various institutions and organisations, both governmental and private. However, these activities lack coordination and long-range planning. A systematic effort will have to be made to coordinate and mobilise all resources - including mass media - for post-literacy activities in the perspective of lifelong education.

Learning strategies should be viewed as complementary to each other. No single strategy can work in the case of adult learners. A judicious use of these strategies is the best guarantee to ensure continuing learning. There are, however, certain things which need to be taken into account in order to achieve the long-range objectives of adult education. Some of the suggestions given below may help to implement the various strategies:

- There is a need to create a permanent learning centre in each village. This centre should be used as a forum for all the educational activities of the various departments and agencies.

- Vocational training courses are in great demand but there is a need to organise several courses of various types. These courses need to be so designed as to require additional acquisition of knowledge and skills and use of literacy.

- A possibility for learners to continue their learning through parallel complementary systems of education should be organized.

Given the commitment and effort that has been exhibited at all levels, there is every reason to hope that appropriate measures will be taken to ensure further success in the future.

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Chapter 3

THE DEVELOPMENT OF LEARNING STRATEGIES FOR POST-LITERACY AND CONTINUING EDUCATION OF THE NEO-LITERATES IN THE PERSPECTIVE OF LIFELONG EDUCATION IN INDONESIA

by

A. Iskandar, U. Sihombing, P. Sudrajat,
A. Santosa, Triyadi, A. Djabar and
Suyono

1. BACKGROUND AND CONTEXT

1.1 Geographical, Demographical and Economic Aspects

Indonesia is an archipelago made up of some 13,667 islands, of which only 992 (or 7%) are populated. Of a total of 147 million people, 61,9% live in Java, which constitutes only one-seventh of the total land area. The Republic is located between latitudes 6° 18' north and 11° 15' south, and longitudes 94° 45' east and 141° west. It is strategically located between Asia and Australia. The total land area (including Timor Timur) is 1,919,443 sq.km. The land surface is mostly mountainous and volcanic. Many of the country's 216 volcanoes are still active.

The region has two main seasons: the rainy season from December to around March, and the dry season from June to September. During the rainy season the weather is mainly determined by winds from the Indian Ocean, while the dry season is affected by winds from the Asian mainland. Maximum and minimum relative humidity reach 100% and 60% respectively, with a maximum rainfall of 277 mm per year. The average annual rainfall is 218.7 mm.

The census of 1980 showed a total population of 147,490,298, of whom 73,332,544 were men and 74,157,754 women. The average population density is 77 people per sq.km. The highest density was found in Jakarta, with 11,023 people per sq.km., while the lowest was reported in Irian Jaya, with 3 people per sq.km. The population is unevenly distributed, with 60% of the total concentrated on the island of Java, making its density 690 people per sq.km. With a net population growth of 2.3%, socio-economic pressures have been of much concern to the planners, despite a strong family-planning programme.

Although the country has begun to transform its economy from traditional agriculture to manufacturing and industry, the overall structure is still very much based on farm economy. More than 80% of the population make their living from the land, but with the size of land holdings diminishing because of population pressure, urbanization is increasing.

Because of the population pressures, agriculture and traditional small-scale cottage industries can no longer fully meet employment demands. Thus large numbers of unemployed and unskilled persons, mainly youth, flood urban areas looking for jobs. Here they join over 11 million (in 1976) unemployed graduates and dropouts from the formal school system.

1.2 The National System of Education

The mandate to provide education to all people was derived from the Constitution of 1945, which specified that every individual was entitled to education. In accordance with this mandate, the government developed a national system of education consisting of complementary programmes of formal and nonformal education. Formal education was implemented through a standardised structure at the primary, secondary and tertiary levels. However, formal education failed to reach the entire school population, as indicated in Table 1.

Table 1

Educational Enrolment During 1978 - 1981

Year	Total Population	Enrolment at different levels				Total
		PS	JS	SS	COLL	
1978	139,986,821	19,074,819	2,673,976	1,290,004	290,035	23,328,834
1979	143,341,442	21,165,724	1,982,592	1,573,594	354,125	26,076,035
1980	146,726,473	22,541,870	3,412,116	1,754,495	395,670	28,104,151
1981	150,210,558	26,862,480	3,809,348	2,031,760	447,536	33,151,124

Many of those enrolled in schools dropped out before finishing their (terminal) programme, as shown in Table 2.

Table 2

Dropouts at Different Levels of Education During 1978 - 1981

Year	Dropouts of				Total
	PS	JS	SS	COLL	
1978	1,270,020	138,363	51,415	-	1,459,798
1979	1,168,826	129,494	50,844	-	1,349,164
1980	1,143,078	121,193	50,275	-	1,314,546
1981	1,118,974	113,412	49,712	-	1,282,098

The nonformal programmes were designed to meet the educational requirements of those who did not attend schools, were dropouts or unemployed. The programmes were developed to respond to the specific needs pertaining to maintenance of and improvement in the standard of living of the learners.

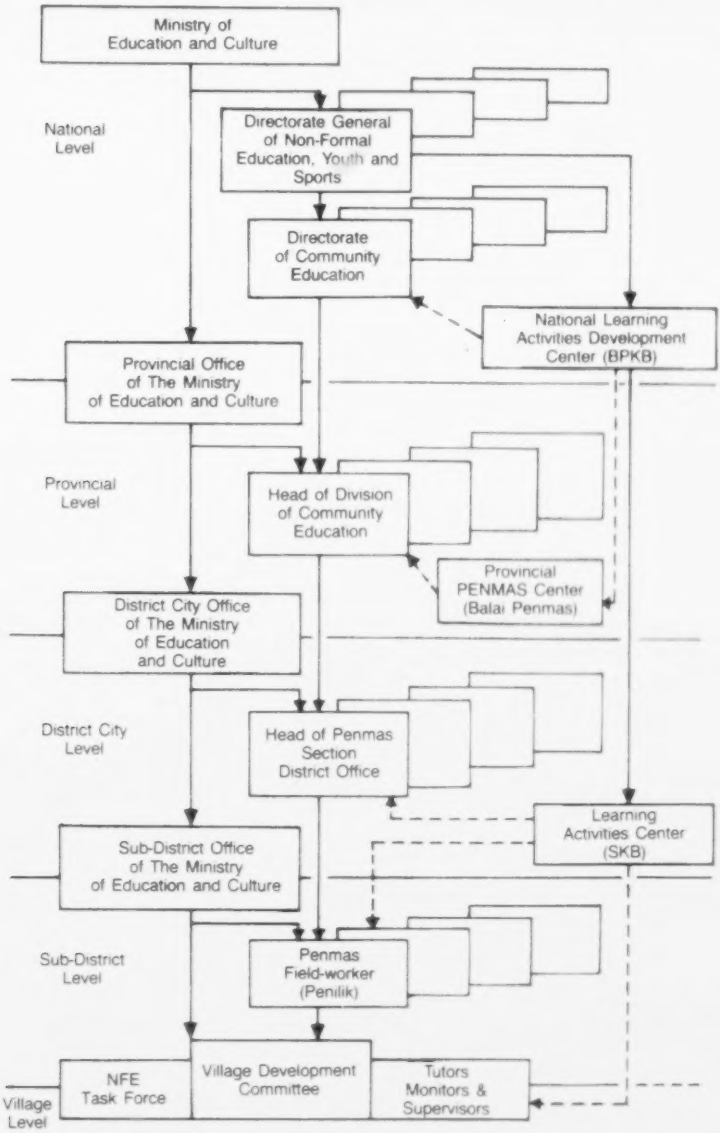
Institutional and Organisational Context of PENMAS

The Ministry of Education and Culture contains four general directorates: Elementary and Secondary Education; Higher Education; Nonformal Education, Youth and Sports (PLSPO); and Culture. The PLSPO is divided into four directorates: Community Education (PENMAS); Youth Guidance; Sports; Technical Support and Development.

The Employment-Oriented Learning Programme (EOLP) is an integral part of the total PENMAS (Directorate of Community Education) programme. In the following, the institutional and organisational context of the PENMAS-EOLP is described in terms of the PENMAS structure within the Ministry of Education and Culture (PDK). Then the EOLP is described in terms of the total PENMAS programmes. Finally, the role of other organisations outside of PENMAS in implementing the EOLP is described. (See Figure 1 on page 4).

PENMAS is currently operating under two different structures. One is the regular PENMAS structure, which contains the following sub-directorates:

Figure 1
Organisational Structure of The Ministry of Education and Culture


Ministry of Education and Culture
National Level
Directorate General of Non-Formal Education, Youth and Sports
Directorate of Community Education
National Learning Activities Development Center (BPKB)
Provincial Office of The Ministry of Education and Culture
Provincial Level
Head of Division of Community Education
Provincial PENMAS Center (Balai Penmas)
District City Office of The Ministry of Education and Culture
District City Level
Head of Penmas Section District Office
Learning Activities Center (SKB)
Sub-District Office of The Ministry of Education and Culture
Sub-District Level
Penmas Field-worker (Penilik)
Village Level
NFE Task Force
Village Development Committee
Tutors Monitors & Supervisors

- Basic Education: Literacy Programmes, etc.

- Women's Education: Family Life Education Programmes, etc.

- Vocational Education: Sewing, Automobile Mechanics, Typing, etc.

- Mobilisation of Community Resources: skilled persons in the community are recruited for PENMAS learning groups and courses.

- Educational Technology: Development of learning materials and aids. PENMAS also has a division of financial administration.

Another PENMAS structure under the sixth Education Project consists of the following components:

- Programme: Research and development, and implementation of EOLP, literacy and other programmes primarily through local learning groups established by the PENMAS *penilik* (field worker);

- Learning Materials: Research, planning and production of printed and non-printed learning materials for use in training PENMAS staff and in NFE learning groups;

- Secretariat: Procurement of hardware and software for various training centres, and financial administration;

- Evaluation: Evaluation, supervision and monitoring of learning group activities as well as those of the PENMAS staff of training programmes and of procurement within the project;

- Training: Training of PENMAS staff from national to sub-district levels to plan, implement and supervise PENMAS programmes; training of non-PENMAS and PDK personnel on their role in the implementation of PENMAS programmes; the training of tutors and facilitators of learning groups.

PDK has a regional office in each of the country's 27 provinces. Each regional office contains a number of divisions, one of which is a PENMAS division. The PENMAS provincial offices are structured along the lines of the national level offices. PDK has an office at the district level which has a PENMAS section. PENMAS *penilika* (field workers) are assigned to the sub-district level PDK office. A single sub-district covers approximately 20 villages. The village and sub-district boundaries are determined by the total number of residents. Therefore, a single sub-district may cover a very small geographical area in the cities, while in sparsely settled rural areas, a single sub-district may be vast. PENMAS *penilika* are equipped with motorcycles, which enable them to reach all parts of their sub-district. The *penilik* carries out his organisational functions with the co-operation of formal and informal village leaders.

In general, the total PENMAS programmes can be divided into operational and support programmes. The operational programmes cover both formal and nonformal learning. "Formal" learning programmes cover established courses with a fixed curriculum that are conducted by PENMAS as well as by private individuals and organisations. The "Nonformal" learning programmes cover learning groups as well as self-instructional courses and apprenticeship programmes. These nonformal learning programmes include instruction in basic education and literacy, family life education, vocational skills and EOLP. The PENMAS support programmes include: the development of learning materials; training of PENMAS staffs, tutors and facilitators, and other personnel involved in the implementation of PENMAS programmes; the procurement of hardware and software for PENMAS facilities; and supervision, monitoring and evaluation.

The implementation of PENMAS programmes is supported by government officials as part of their regular duty, by non-government community leaders, and by other voluntary organisations. Government functions are carried out in a hierarchical chain of command from the minister down to local officials. At the local level, officials include: the heads of the villages, the heads of wards within the village, and the heads of neighbourhoods within each ward. The support and assistance of these formal leaders are required for organising any PENMAS learning activities in the village.

In addition to formal leaders, there are informal leaders who may be requested to support and assist the organisation of learning groups. The informal village leaders include: religious

leaders, army personnel, government workers such as agriculture extension agents, and other respected individuals. The formal and informal leaders of the village assist the PENMAS *penilik* in recruiting potential learners for the learning groups. They also assist in locating resource persons and sometimes act as resource persons themselves. They form committees to oversee the use of learning funds in the groups, monitor learning activities, and perform related duties.

A number of voluntary organisations also assist PENMAS in implementing its programmes, including the EOLP. The three organisations which have supported PENMAS the most are: Dharma Wanita, an organisation of wives of government officials and personnel; Dharma Pertiwi, an association of wives of military personnel; and Kowani, a national women's organisation. These organisations co-operate with PENMAS in implementing nonformal education programmes by assisting the *penilik* in organising learning groups, including contact with formal and informal village leaders. They also assist in monitoring the learning groups' activities.

Striking programme co-ordination can be seen with regard to the production and development of programmes such as Paket A, village newspapers, and mass media communication. At the village level, the LKMD (village council) plays a major role in the implementation of development programmes. The LKMD has 10 sections, one of which is the Education Section, which is responsible for supervising educational activities in the community.

The major function of the LKMD is to help the village head in planning and implementing the government programmes in the village community. The LKMD derives its membership from the formal and informal leaders of the community. All PENMAS programmes are also implemented through this mechanism. Hence the PENMAS field worker has to consult the LKMD before embarking on specific learning activities in the village.

1.3 Literacy Situation

The problem of illiteracy in Indonesia goes back to the colonial period, when education was a privilege enjoyed only by a tiny minority who were to serve the interests of the colonial administration. The people were kept ignorant and backward so that they could be "kept at bay". The result was that when the country was proclaimed independent in 1945, it inherited a

dismal situation with respect to education: ninety percent of the entire population of 80 million were illiterate. Hence the newly established government made education of the masses one of its immediate concerns. The first step taken by the government, in June 1946, was to set up a Community Education Section within the Ministry of Education to

(i) study the problems related to illiteracy and to submit proposals to the government; and

(ii) prepare learning materials for the mass teaching of reading and writing.

Three years later, in August 1949, the Community Education Section was elevated to the Office of Community Education within the same ministry. Its main responsibility was to provide education to out-of-school youth and adults and other members of the communities in order that every person might become a conscious, productive and useful citizen. Its specific tasks were to conduct literacy campaigns and follow-up programmes, open up practical courses in general knowledge and productive skills, help set up and maintain public libraries, and produce reading materials for the enhancement of the general knowledge of the people.

Soon a government-organised literacy programme was begun on a national scale. With the help of literacy committees, which were established in every sub-district, the programmes became the first mass campaign to be undertaken in the post-Independence years. Literacy courses sprang up everywhere, reaching young people and adults aged 10 to 45 years, and teaching them the basic skills of reading and writing. The campaign started off with strong support both from the government and the public at large. During the initial years of peak performance, millions of people gained new skills and became literate. Towards the end of 1960, however, when the activities tapered off and people began to take stock of what had really been achieved, all indications pointed to the fact that what had seemed to be an impressive result was no more than a temporary phenomenon. Millions, who for once in their lifetime had acquired the necessary skills for advancement, soon relapsed into illiteracy due to inadequate follow-up provision.

In August 1960, when the 1945 Constitution was reinstated and the country committed itself to building a socialist society, the president made a speech stating that illiteracy

should be eliminated from the country not later than 1964. Another mass literacy campaign began, this time on a much larger scale, and affecting every individual (the illiterates were to avail themselves of the literacy programme and the literates to help in teaching them); resources were mobilised from all governmental and non-governmental institutions, as well as from communities throughout the country. Fierce competition developed during this four-year period between the villages - and subsequently at higher levels of the administration - to excel in the successful implementation of the programme by being the first to eliminate illiteracy from a region. A high-ranking government official - sometimes a cabinet minister - would preside over a ceremony to proclaim the first village or district or province which had successfully eradicated illiteracy. The campaign, which had a slight political overtone, soon degenerated into a series of mere political rallies. Emphasis on political propaganda took precedence over educational achievement to the extent of allowing for a very low level of literacy skills in order to attain the goal in even a nominal sense. In 1964 the head of state proclaimed that the whole country had been freed from illiteracy. Follow-up activities were neglected and attempts to help the new literates consolidate their skills in reading and writing were not seriously pursued.

It was not surprising when the 1971 census revealed more than 21 million illiterates over the age of 9. True, some of these were children of the early 1960s, who did not go to school. It was also true that some of them were school dropouts who had lost their skills altogether. But the majority came from among those who had completed the literacy courses and who, for a lack of follow-up efforts, had relapsed into illiteracy again.

The 1980 census revealed more than 16 million illiterates between the ages of 10 and 44 and more than 1 million dropouts from primary schools. There were more than 500,000 such dropouts from the first to third grades. For illiteracy and dropout statistics see Tables 3 and 4.

Table 3

Illiteracy Rates and Percentage of Illiterates
Ages 10 - 44 to Total Population

Description of Illiterate Population	Census 1971	Census 1980
Population age group 10 - 44	64,445,645	81,233,035
Total Population	118,367,850	147,490,293
Total Number of Illiterates	21,681,591	16,278,927
Percentage of Illiterates in the 10 - 44 Age Group	33,6%	20,7%
Percentage of Illiterates in the 10 - 44 Age Group to Total Population	18,3%	11,2%

Table 4

Dropout Rates at the Primary Level
During 1971 - 1980

Year	Total Dropouts from Primary Schools	Dropouts at 1st, 2nd and 3rd Grades		% of Dropouts at 1st, 2nd and 3rd Grade against Total Dropouts
1971	1,306,576	672,426		51
1972	1,355,425	668,920		49
1973	1,319,902	662,521		50,2
1974	1,221,256	704,017		57,6
1975	922,323	459,486		49,8
1976	657,506	322,177		48,9
1977	815,736	455,906		55,9
1978	1,270,020	608,338		47,9
1979	1,168,326	572,724		48,9
1980	1,143,078	559,258		49
Total:	11,180,648	5,685,744	Average	50,6

2. GENERAL ISSUES RELATED TO PENMAS

2.1 Policy Matters

The 1945 Constitution expressed commitment to mass education by stating that "each citizen has the right to receive an education". This goal is further delineated in the General Policy Directions (GBHN) that education should be a lifelong process and should be implemented within as well as outside the school system. Hence, education became the responsibility of the families, the communities and the government. These educational goals and objectives go beyond mere teaching of the literacy and numeracy skills; they encompass the development of positive attitudes towards learning the skills to identify and solve problems and the capacity to create new employment opportunities for themselves and others so that they can live a prosperous and happy life.

The sections in the Constitution that specify the educational goals are chapter 33, article 1, which says that every citizen is entitled to education; chapter 33, article 3, which specifies that the economy shall be based on the principle of joint efforts; and chapter 27, article 2, which says that every citizen is entitled to proper employment. The Constitution assumes that it is the government's responsibility to set up ongoing programmes of learning, working and earning as a continuous process throughout one's life time.

In view of the fact that the vast majority of the population lack literacy, numeracy and basic skills, a problem compounded by the vast number of school dropouts in need of earning-skills, in 1975 the Government set up a Directorate General for Non-Formal Education, Youth and Sports for planning and implementing nonformal programmes outside the school system.

2.2 Target Population

The programmes of teaching literacy and numeracy skills and providing basic information are directed to:

- those who do not attend the schools due to poverty or other reasons;

- those who are illiterate;

- those who drop out from various levels of schooling; and
- those who have completed the basic level education courses.

2.3 Programme Objectives

- To eradicate simultaneously three kinds of ignorance: ignorance of literacy and numeracy; ignorance of Bahasa Indonesia (national language); and, ignorance of Basic Education.
- To prevent new literates from relapsing into illiteracy.
- To foster positive attitudes towards development and changes.
- To help learners acquire relevant skills needed to improve their standard of living.

2.4 Delivery System

In order to run its programmes, PENMAS applies the following four types of delivery systems:

Courses: A course is designed to teach a group of 10 to 20 people a variety of skills. The curriculum is set up by PENMAS at the national, provincial and district levels. The government provides finance to design courses and implement the PENMAS curriculum, while private individuals or non-government institutions may organise similar skill-learning courses funded by the learners' tuition charges.

Apprenticeship: This learning process emphasises acquisition of certain skills through working with and under the guidance of someone (e.g., a tutor) who has specific knowledge and skills needed by the learner. By giving his/her labour the learner does not burden the resource person (or a tutor) nor does she/he suffer a loss of earning because of acquisition of skills in return.

Self-learning: This method of learning applies to those who have completed basic literacy. Basic materials are supplied by Paket A series of 60 to 100, which contain a set of courses for learning a variety of productive and problem-solving skills. Self-learning is not devoid of working together and mutual learning among learners and resource persons, even though everyone follows his/her own course of learning.

Learning Group: In the Indonesian language, *kejar* has three distinct meanings. First, *kejar* is a word that means literally "to catch up" or to improve one's life. Second, *kejar* is formed from the words "kelompok belajar" which means "learning group". All PENMAS activities at the community level are based upon the abilities, needs, resources, and dynamisms of the local learning groups. Finally, *kejar* is also formed from the words "bekerja" and "belajar" meaning "work and study", showing the integration of daily life activities (work) and learning (study). These three meanings of the word *kejar* describe the following basic principles of nonformal education programmes in Indonesia:

- Learning should take place in small community-based groups.

- Learning groups form and develop activities on the basis of work-related needs and interests.

- Learning should motivate and result in positive attitudes towards development and life improvement.

3. MAJOR PROGRAMMES FOR LITERACY, POST-LITERACY AND CONTINUING EDUCATION

3.1 Overview

The major programme to abolish the "three blindnesses" (illiteracy, lack of Bahasa Indonesia and basic information) is the Basic Education Programme, which is implemented through learning groups by designing courses, as well as through self-learning. The series of Paket A including the programme is popularly known as "Programme Kejar Paket A".

Through Kejar Paket A, about one hundred thousand people are made literate annually. Since the neo-literates relapse into illiteracy after some time, follow-up programmes have to be set up for them. These programmes also take into consideration such factors as the skill level of learners, local conditions and availability of resources. Some of the programmes are: Vocational Skill Training, Family Life Education, and Occupational Education.

Supplementary materials to Paket A, such as posters, slide shows, learning games, and cassette tapes have been developed at all levels of project administration to reinforce the learning process. The follow-up programmes also makes use of mass media such as newspapers, radio and television, and other continuous learning processes in the communities.

Past experience in planning and implementing literacy programmes has provided us with the following useful lessons:

- Learners' skills in reading and writing must attain at least the proficiency level of the fourth grade.

- Teaching the skills and providing the literacy environment that reinforces these skills should constitute one integrated programme.

- A crucial factor in the whole process of learning is one of retention.

The longer the learners are retained in the courses the greater the chances are for them to acquire the level required for longer retention. Similarly, it is closely related to the learner's motivation because learners perceive the direct

benefits from their learning. Based on the PENMAS experience and in the context of lifelong education, a more comprehensive programme was developed as elaborated below:

3.2 Kejar Paket A

Objectives

PENMAS introduced a more comprehensive programme of literacy in 1977, called KEJAR PAKET A. This "package" consists of a series of basic learning materials on all aspects of life required by primary school dropouts and those who have not had the chance to go to school, so as to enable them to become productive and responsible citizens. This learning package is oriented to innovation and development. Kejar Package A is for a learning group to be used as a learning material. The programme reflects the philosophy of nonformal education that learning should not be separated from the activities of daily life and work.

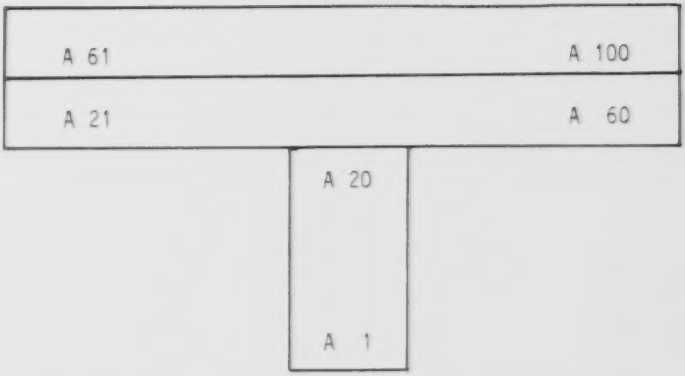
The programme aims at eradicating three kinds of ignorance simultaneously:

- ignorance of literacy and numeracy;
- ignorance of Bahasa Indonesia (the national language);
- ignorance of basic education (functional literacy and productive skills).

Materials

Basic materials used in Paket A contain information that leads to the acquisition of knowledge, skills and attitudes required in daily life and which help the learners to become ideal Indonesian citizens practising the Pancasila way of life. Learning Package A consists of booklets with 100 titles as follows:

- The A1-A20 series contain integrated basic lessons in reading, writing, arithmetic and Bahasa Indonesia. The booklets have been prepared in such a way that the levels of difficulty of the content increases gradually. These materials are to be studied in a sequential order, beginning with A1, continuing to A2, and so on. The series A1-A20 may be considered as the leg of the letter T or the foundation of a house of knowledge.



- The A21-A60 series (the lower roof of the letter T) is a continuation of A1-A20 and contains additional information on basic knowledge and skills concerning different aspects of life. This series may be considered as the support beam of the house of knowledge. Unlike A1-A20, the level of difficulty of the content of A21-A60 series is similar.

- The A61-A100 series (the upper roof of the letter T) contains information on knowledge and skills concerning various aspects of life which are wider in scope. The level of difficulty of the content of this series of booklets is similar but somewhat higher than that of the A21-A60 series.

Thus, after mastering A1-A20 series, a learner may be able to study A21 or any booklet from A21-A60 series. After mastering A21-A60 series, he or she may be able to study A61 or any booklet of A61-A100.

Procedure for Selecting Content

The Directorate General for NFE, Youth and Sports has laid down a policy regarding the content of learning materials to be used in PENMAS programmes. At the national level a Technical Co-ordinating Committee (NTCC) was set up with representatives from different ministries involved in community development activities. The task of the Committee was to co-ordinate the programmes and generate the contents for the programmes. In developing the Paket A, the Committee supervised the whole process

of writing, field-testing and finalizing the master copies. In this process the criteria for developing the Paket A were the following:

- The title must be attractive, stimulating and easy to understand;
- The contents must be relevant to the local situation and convey knowledge and skills needed to improve the quality of life;
- The letters should be bold enough for adults to read;
- The contents must induce learners to try to implement them;
- The pictures must be related to the contents;
- They must be presented in the national language;
- They must represent the five principles of Indonesian life (Pancasila).

Production and Distribution

Initially, Paket A was printed centrally at the national level. But in 1978, when the provincial centres established their printing units, subsequent production was done at the provincial level. By using its own facilities, PENMAS was able to reduce the cost of production without lowering the quality. Some local administration also helped PENMAS to print paket A at the district levels.

The unit cost for production of Paket A amounted to Rp. 200 per copy, including the cost of shipment to the provincial offices. However, a distribution cost was not incurred by the districts as the books were picked up by the field workers *penilika* when they came to district headquarters for their salary every month. The *penilika* also distributed the books to the facilitators and tutors in the villages.

Target Population

This programme is for those who are a) 10-45 years of age, b) never went to school and are illiterate in the Latin alphabet, c) dropped out from primary school, and d) need to improve

their basic knowledge and skills in order to raise their standard of living. In this programme, priority is given to boys and girls between 10 and 15 years of age. Illiterates who are 46 years or more may be served through non-written materials such as tape-cassettes, posters, and the like.

Learning Method

The A1 to A3 series are taught by the Synthesis-Analysis-Synthesis (SAS) method, at the same time reinforced by drill exercises to accelerate the learning process. Additionally the Learning Package "A" may be studied through various ways, such as:

- Self study, with or without a tutor (anyone who is willing to help others to learn is called a tutor): This system is especially applicable to booklets A21-A100; it may be effective for those who are able to read and write.

- Group learning: This is guided by a learning-group leader who is chosen by the group members. This method applies to booklets A1-A20 and a tutor is required. This system is considered to be potentially effective.

- Mutual learning: One who needs to know more about a specific item learns from another community member.

- Using an instructor: The learners request an instructor (resource person) to educate them about a specialized subject.

- Apprenticeship: The learner works as an apprentice with an artisan.

Methods of Initiating Learning Activities

Learning groups may be formed in every neighbourhood/village. The steps which are taken to initiate learning activities are the following:

(a) Community members are to be motivated and encouraged to participate in the learning activities.

(b) Those who are interested will be registered and divided into groups of 6-10 persons. Each group will consist of people who are of the same age group, of the same level of literacy, have similar interests, and come from the same neighbourhood.

(c) A group leader is selected for each group. The learning-group leader and the learners decide jointly about the subjects to be studied, the schedule of learning activities, the meeting place and the type of tutor required.

(d) The group conducts learning activities as scheduled.

(e) After completing a subject, an achievement test is administered by the learning-group leader. Then, the learners have to translate their knowledge into practice, such as home gardening, fish breeding, poultry raising, reforestation, and so on.

(f) The group may then proceed to study another subject.

A final achievement test is given to those who complete the whole course. Those who pass the test receive a "Certificate of Participation in the Package A Learning Programme". The test may be administered at any time on the request of the learner(s).

Programme Support

We have learned that follow-up activities (post-literacy) to reinforce the acquisition and the application of literacy skills are as important as the teaching of literacy itself. It is simply not enough to have the people join the literacy classes and leave the programme after they have learned how to read and write. There must also be follow-up activities to help them consolidate and sustain the skills for use in their daily life.

Paket A in the Kejar Programme is basically a set of learning materials to enable learners acquire literacy skills. Thus, in order to reinforce the acquisition and application of the skills of the learners, several supporting activities for the

teaching of literacy were undertaken, which also included supplementary materials.

Supplementary Materials for Paket A

Paket A contains a series of basic materials designed to teach literacy, Bahasa Indonesia (the national language), and life skills. As a vehicle for imparting functional skills, the series seems too abstract to teach practical skills needed to cope with the learners' life problems and which are supposed to be the content of the series. One can get a general idea of what the respective skill is but one does not get enough instruction on *how to do it*.

To fill the gap, the programme developed supplementary materials to serve as work manuals. For this purpose, the directorate of PENMAS publishes instructions on how to prepare supplementary materials and encourages production at the local and village levels. These supplementary materials contain technical instructions about a particular skill which are described in each booklet to facilitate practical training.

The specific objectives for the production and development of supplementary materials are as follows:

- to supplement Paket A;
- to facilitate the learning process;
- to reinforce the teaching of literacy skills;
- to help learners practise the content of the series of Paket A concerned.

The main target population of the supplementary materials are the same learning group members of Kejar Paket A, who are studying or finishing particular series. In addition, other interested people, who want to improve their basic knowledge and skills, can also be included in the training programme.

Examples of the supplementary materials are as follows:

a) *Posters*: Posters are useful for strengthening the motivation of learners. It has been realized that one will want to learn something if he/she knows what he/she will get out of it. Therefore it is imperative to disseminate widely to the communities the benefits one can derive by learning the skills

from Paket A. Posters were produced after the field-testing to ensure both their relevance to the Paket A series and their technical adequacy.

Some of the titles, which were mostly of motivational nature, included the following:

- Let Us Abolish the Three Blindnesses (for Paket A1)
- By Learning and Working We Build Our Village (for Paket A3)
- Cleanliness is the First Step to Health (for Paket A5)
- Let Us Increase Our Income (for Paket A8)

By 1982, about 16,500 copies of the posters had been produced, including the above titles.

b) *Cassette tapes*: Audio cassettes can be used to facilitate learning. Cassette tapes were developed for use in conjunction with the Paket A series. These tapes contain detailed information on topics discussed in the series. By early 1983, a total of 5,200 cassette tapes had been produced. Some of the titles were:

- God the Almighty (for Paket A21)
- Together We Build Our Village (for Paket A22)
- My Home is My Castle (for Paket A31)
- We Count On You (for Paket A33)
- National Songs, etc.

c) *Learning games*: Arithmetic has been found to be the most difficult skill to teach to illiterates. It is not the mechanics of calculation itself but rather the symbolising of it that most learners had difficulty in mastering. To help them in the learning process, various learning games were developed at the village and sub-district levels. These games were found to accelerate the pace of learning numeracy. Some of the games produced were the following:

- *Letter dice*: On each of the six surfaces of a dice, a letter is printed. There are sufficient dice for the entire Latin alphabet. To play the game, a tutor shuffles the dice and divides them among the players. Then the tutor writes a word or a phrase which the players try to copy with their dice.

- *Matching the picture*: Each player is given a list of names of well-known persons. The tutor shows a picture of each person with a short description of what he/she is doing. The learners then try to identify the person in the picture.

- *Domino cards*: On the upper part of each card a syllable is printed. For each game, every player gets seven such cards and the tutor asks them to combine the cards into a short phrase and read it to others.

- *Quiz*: A series of pictures not familiar to learners are printed on a manilla carton. The learners have to give a name to each picture by putting underneath it a series of lettered cards given to them. The tutor may present the whole series of pictures at once or one at a time.

Until 1982, a total of 20 different types of games had been developed and over 200,000 sets of these were produced. The learners' motivation was greatly improved by these supplementary materials, as indicated by longer retention in the literacy classes. Details about the production and funding source of Paket A can be seen from the following Table 5:

Table 5

Production of Paket A Series with Funding Sources and Year of Contribution

Year	Funding Sources	Paket A1 - A10 Series	Paket A11 - A20 Series	Total
75/83	GOI	12.421.921	8.612.412	21.034.333
75/80	UNICEF	1.380.000	750.000	2.130.000
79/80	Local Government	7.400.178		7.400.178
81/82	National Co-ordination for Family Planning	100.000	100.000	100.000
79/80	Oil Company	1.653.000	1.659.000	3.312.000
80/82	World Bank	10.170.000	1.513.077	11.683.077
79/80	Private Sector	206.035		206.035
80/81	Formal Schools	262.500	262.500	325.000
Total:		33.593.634	12.896.989	46.290.623

3.3 Village Newspapers

Newspapers play a major role in disseminating development information to the people. They also function as a forum through which people air their grievances and suggest new approaches. Through newspapers the people are kept informed about what development activities are being undertaken by the government, so that they can prepare themselves for active participation in the development process.

Present Status

At present, there are more than 100 newspapers, published at the rate of 20 million copies a day, and distributed all over the country. Considering the requirements of the entire population of 147 million, the volume is still inadequate. In addition, the circulation is mostly confined to densely populated urban centres and towns whilst the vast majority (80%) of the rural population have little access to such mass media. On the other hand, development schemes are under way in the rural villages involving transport, electrification, education and other areas.

For the purpose of disseminating information related to rural development, the government has introduced a programme called "Koran Masuk Desa" (Village Newspaper). In addition to the participation of the existing regular newspapers, the government also published a special edition entitled the "Village Newspaper" for exclusive dissemination of development information to the rural communities.

This programme of newspapers for the villages was introduced during PELITA I (First Five Year Plan) in 1969 because of a need to provide general information to the masses, so that more people could become aware of the development programmes being designed by the government.

The village newspaper was a result of co-operation between the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Information, since the target audience for development information consisted of those who had just finished literacy courses and therefore needed help to sustain their newly-acquired skills. The results were encouraging. It was felt that there was a marked increase in people's participation in the development programmes due to a greater exposure to the information provided through the rural newspapers. At present, about 70% of the rural communities have been reached by news media. The remaining 30% still have no access to printed news media because of their physical isolation.

Target Population

As mentioned earlier, the village newspapers are designed to cater for the people in the rural communities who are generally not yet exposed to regular mass media. These people are mainly those who have completed learning the Kejar Paket A and are scattered in about 60,430 villages all over the country. Since the village newspaper has limited editions, the government has not been able to provide multiple copies to each village. However, the current policy ensures a minimum of one copy a day to be posted on the bulletin board of a village. At the same time, villages with easier access to the district centres can have more subscriptions of the village newspapers for members of the learning groups after completion of Paket A1 to A20 series. The village newspapers appear to be successful in strengthening the motivation of the learning group members.

Objectives

Specific objectives for the publication and distribution of village newspapers are as follows:

- to provide for out-of-school people an alternative source of learning;

- to disseminate information regarding development projects or activities being undertaken by the government;

- to develop reading interest and reading habit among rural people particularly among the new literates;

- to disseminate technical information regarding various development sectors in agriculture, health, education, etc.;

- to provide a forum for exchange of experiences among the people by contributing articles, reports, or personal accounts;

- to encourage popular participation in social and economic development;

- to provide a communication media for the government to put forth its policy decisions;

- to prevent those who have just acquired basic literacy skills from relapsing into illiteracy;

- to facilitate the exchange of local or regional cultures and traditions;

- to develop a sense of national identity.

This programme is directed to rural people who have completed learning Package A1-A20 series, and to primary-school dropouts.

Format

The format of the village newspapers reflects the form of a tabloid specializing in city news features. Some newspapers deal with national and international current events, while others specialize in local development efforts. The village newspapers are printed in large, bold letters so that people with poor vision or people with a minimum of reading skills can read them easily. They also specialize in the dissemination of information about development projects being undertaken by the villages and local communities. They sometimes carry special

features on village technology such as swift-current fishery and alternative fertilizing techniques. The village newspapers are printed on two pages, compared to the twelve pages of ordinary newspapers. Since the audience are the new literates and rural people with limited reading skills, the two-page edition has been found adequate to satisfy the current need.

Cost

An ordinary newspaper sells for Rp. 100 to Rp. 150 at the newsstand, while the village newspaper is distributed free of charge to every village to be posted on the bulletin board. Since the readers are members of the learning groups, some of the villages take the responsibility to make duplicate copies and make them available to the groups.

For some years to come, the policy of free distribution of the village newspapers appears to be the only possibility - in view of the low income level of most of the rural population. However, daily newspapers have already begun to penetrate the once closed communities of even the remotest villages, and with an ever increasing use of transistor radio and television sets, their exposure to mass media has been gradually increasing.

Dissemination

Distribution is effected by means of the indigenous social organisation: the village council (LKMD). During 1981/1982, there were 42 types of village newspapers, with a total circulation of over 59 million copies.

The village newspapers were encouraged in conjunction with the development of village reading centres/libraries, rural radio programmes, model farmers' groups, etc. All these programmes and activities aim at creating and sustaining literate communities. Data on village newspapers is presented in Table 6.

The village newspapers emphasise the dissemination of personal accounts and experiences of the learners and new developments in specific skill areas. Articles written by the learners are reviewed by the Kecamatan editorial team composed of PENMAS and the Information Officer, who then passes them on to the district and provincial editorial boards. The provincial board selects and edits the ones that will be published daily. Other programme materials developed in the district may be reproduced by the districts personnel on stencils for distribution in that particular district.

Table 6

Total Number and Production Cost of the Village Newspapers During 1979 - 1982

Year	Total Number Produced	Production Cost
1979/1980	43.950	Rp. 951.415.500
1980/1981	29.725.000	Rp. 1.040.375.000
1981/1982	59.358.000	Rp. 2.671.110.000
Total:	89.126.950	Rp. 4.662.900.500

The channel for distribution of village newspapers corresponds with the administrative hierarchy up to the village level and from that level, the LKMD (Village Council) serves as a distribution point for learning groups and other readers.

Evaluation

As an integral part of the literacy programme, the development of the village newspaper is evaluated from time to time with respect to the following points:

- the distribution pattern;
- the utilisation rate;
- the readers' assessment of the content;
- the effect of the newspaper on the learning process;
- the total number of readers;
- the paper's coverage;
- the readability of the language used;
- the relevance of the content to the needs.

Problems

In a recent evaluation it was found that about 60% of the new literates read the village newspapers and found them very

useful. One of the problems was that there were not enough copies for each reader, so readers had to take turns. In villages where only one copy was available, the village head had to put it on the bulletin board for all the people to read, which caused inconvenience to individual readers.

3.4 Radio and Television Programmes

Radio has long been a potent medium for disseminating general information to the public. During the last 30 or 40 years, transistor radios have become so popular that they can be found even in the remote areas. The potential of radio for education was realised soon after the success of pilot educational radio programmes. In 1972, a domestic satellite system for television transmission was established, and the television sets soon became as popular as the radio sets during the 1960s. Now, radio and television sets are becoming primary needs for most people, even in the rural villages.

The unit responsible for the development of educational media - including radio and television programmes - is the TKPK (Centre of Communication Technology in Education and Culture) within the Ministry of Education. The TKPK co-ordinates all the activities related to the development and utilisation of mass communication media such as radio and television in the formal as well as nonformal education sectors.

The Directorate of PENMAS has been working closely with the TKPK in the development of media technology for nonformal programmes. Currently, a bi-weekly television programme of skill training is broadcast on the national channel. Another programme of general information on rural life and agricultural technology is broadcast on the national radio station once a week for one-and-a-half hours.

Objectives

The radio and television programmes designed specifically for nonformal education generally aim at the following:

- to help learners converse in the national language;
- to reinforce the learning process of the new literates and condition them to distance learning;

- to create a continuous learning situation in the communities;

- to provide technical and administrative support to the programme participants;

- to provide general or specific information and skills relevant to the listeners' occupations and interests;

- to sustain the learning group's activities in the rural communities;

- to prevent a relapse into illiteracy among the new literates;

- to help new literates apply their acquired skills in their daily lives.

Audiences

The main audiences of the radio and television programmes include:

- the new literates;

- the members of Kejar Paket A;

- other participants of the Nonformal Education programme; and

- those who have completed the programmes.

There has been much competition for transmission time between the technical departments, so the "air-time" allocated to the Department of Nonformal Education has to be planned carefully for maximum results. The radio programme is on the air once a week for one hour (56 transmissions a year).

Format and Topics

The programme may take the form of a dialogue, question and answer session, lecture, radio drama, etc., on a general theme such as good citizenship, including the practices of Pancasila. A wide range of topics of discussion dealt with include the following:

- Specific skill training
- Healthy diet for baby
- Mother as an educator
- Commemorating Mother's Day
- A second chance
- Let's build our village through skill training
- From hobby to productive activities
- NFE and community self-help
- Women's role in education
- Make good use of your yards
- Health food
- Home gardening, etc.

Educational Television

The educational television programme for out-of-school youth and adults is transmitted once a month. The programme is oriented towards occupational training and teaches people how to market their productive skills. Topics of discussion relate to various aspects of business management such as production and marketing, book-keeping, entrepreneurship, etc. and are couched in an instructive but entertaining presentation such as news features or serial dramas. As an example, a television programme on various types of small business and cottage industry would include topics related to catering service, ornamental flowers, orchid cultivation, rabbit raising, bamboo crafts, food preservation, wood carving, cassava chips, batik printing, etc.

To a great extent, the success of the educational television depends on the active participation of both the formal and the informal community leaders. The village chief has a major role to play in organising learning groups and establishing listening groups. The groups are informed about the schedule in advance so that the members may plan their time accordingly for

the day of the transmission. The village chief is elected for 5 years by the communities. Receivers are provided by the government for some groups, others have to procure one through their own contributions. At present, there are about 27,000 listening groups operating in various villages throughout the country.

Constraints

One of the problems with the listening groups has been that of ensuring regular attendance at the place where the radio and television programmes are shown. To get the listening group in a certain place at a certain hour requires more organising effort than with the regular learning groups. Once a radio and TV programme is missed, it is very difficult to repeat it. Some of the villages, therefore, have found their own ways of coping with this problem. For instance, one way is by rotating the tutor or facilitator to a special assignment of recording and transcribing the programme at the scheduled hours with or without the presence of the members. In this way, at least some of the discussions can be preserved for later use or shared with those who missed them.

Evaluation

From our observations it can be said that the radio and television programmes have made a substantial impact on the communities. There were strong indications that people did in fact gain new knowledge and skills and practise these in their daily lives. One example is the use of the national language. More and more rural villagers started using Bahasa Indonesia in their daily conversation, more people were reading newspapers, and more people were involved in the decision making process at the local levels.

In 1979/1980, the Ministry of Information conducted a survey on the impact of rural radio and television programmes. A sample of radio and television audiences was asked questions regarding programme contents, formats, transmission times and impacts on the individual as well as on the community. In general, the responses were quite positive. In addition, the programmes have begun to elicit direct feedback from the audiences through letters addressed to the programmers. The Ministry of Information is considering the further improvement of the rural radio and television programmes in the near future.

3.5 Follow-up Courses

The follow-up courses of the Nonformal Education programme (NFE) are partly managed directly by the government in the form of curriculum development, and provision of operational costs by PENMAS. But the actual day-to-day learning is generated by the members of the community under the guidance of PENMAS field workers. The curriculum is developed in collaboration with various technical departments, the private sector, the facilitators and the learners. PENMAS provides the budget for drafting, field testing and revision, and also for organisation. In this way, the curriculum, the programme contents and the methods are continuously tested in order to relate them to actual learning needs of a particular group. The total number of hours required for different types of courses ranges from 144 to 180, and the learners who complete the course get a certificate of completion.

Various skills taught through courses include mechanical and automotive repairs, sewing and tailoring, welding, book-keeping, and hairdressing. The operational cost of a course ranges from Rp. 150,000 to Rp. 180,000, which includes the pay of the instructor and the cost of the materials. NFE programmes managed by private institutions (called the PLSM) are also co-ordinated by PENMAS, which also provides technical assistance. The curricula of these courses are developed by a consortium according to the skill area and the test items. Two types of examinations are held for each course, the local and the national examination. After the examinations certificates are awarded.

In order to ensure the quality of the follow-up courses, PENMAS conducted a tracer study on the basis of continuous sampling. The study revealed that many of the graduates were still out of work. That is why PENMAS has developed a new programme, the Employment Oriented Learning Group, through which learners are taught how to learn and earn at the same time.

The literacy programme as summarized above is intended to enhance knowledge and skills for personal advancement. Therefore, together with literacy teaching, follow-up courses in general knowledge and/or specific skill training constitute an integral system of the post-literacy and continuing lifelong education.

These follow-up courses, designed in conjunction with literacy classes, are as follows:

Family-life education courses: These are courses to improve knowledge and skills pertaining to home management. In addition to general discussion on citizenship, national history, and culture (including Bahasa Indonesia), the curriculum also includes practical training on domestic skills such as sewing, cooking, home gardening, childcare, food preserving, batik painting, etc. The relevance of these skills to women in their family life make it one of the most popular courses for village women. The scope and level of general information and domestic skills imparted during the course require an application of the acquired literacy skills.

The main goal of the family life education courses is to help the learners improve their family life. However, the domestic skills developed during the course period often bring about other positive changes. For example, after finishing the programme, several learning groups establish small businesses or cottage industries, providing goods or services to the community. The course was in such a great demand in the local communities that not only the central government but also local governments were eager to allocate funds from their own resources to support the organisation and management of the learning groups. Of the existing nonformal education courses during the early 1980s, the Family Life Education course was the one whose continuity was least dependent on government allocations; the learners themselves were willing to help finance the courses.

Vocational skills courses: These follow-up courses are designed to give people productive skills leading to employment in private enterprise, e.g., small businesses or cottage industries. Similar to family life education courses, the skills taught in the vocational courses require an intensive use of literacy skills. Indeed, the vocational skill training courses have helped many of the learners to start new or improved vocations where literacy skills were made functional. Because of relatively higher per unit cost compared to other follow-up courses, the vocational training requires a contribution from the learners either in the form of a course fee or tools or equipment for the training. It has been a

common practice to ask the learners to bring their own training tools and raw materials, while the government fund is used for paying the instructors.

3.6 Employment-Oriented Learning Programme (EOLP)

Nonformal education programmes often fail to address one of the most pressing needs of the rural poor clientele: the need for income or increased income. The "poorest of the poor" need more work opportunities, better skills and better access to financial resources. The fulfilment of these needs has some direct bearing on the motivation for learning. It has been recognised that learners will be lastingly motivated if they are able to derive direct benefits from their learning activities. And what benefit is more direct than being employed or having a constant or additional source of income? To a certain extent, this also holds true for literacy learning. Past experience has clearly indicated that even with functional literacy, where the approach is to determine the areas in which literacy can be made functional prior to introducing the teaching of literacy, in some instances learners' perception of direct benefit seemed to be absent. The result was that many of the learners soon abandoned the cognitive learning altogether and concentrated on the "other learning" which enabled them to provide immediate material gains. Past approaches to literacy learning, particularly the functional literacy programmes, seemed to rest on the assumptions that says, "Let us teach them reading and writing skills and see if these can be somehow connected with some development areas that learners will engage in, so that the skills may find their use".

The EOLP was first proposed at the time of planning the World Bank-assisted NFE Project in 1977. So far, 35 pilot projects have been implemented in the seven provinces of North Sumatra, DKI Jakarta, West Java, Central Java, Yogyakarta, East Java and South Sulawesi, with five projects in each province. These pilot projects are set up in the villages for a period of six months, under the guidance and supervision of the field workers.

Objectives

The goal of the programme is to promote the growth of entrepreneurship and managerial skills by means of community-based learning activities. With some 15,000,000 unemployed or

underemployed people between the ages of 12 and 45 in Indonesia, the need for expanded opportunities for productive employment has been a major concern.

The main objective is to enable the group of learners to market the skills which they already possess. Therefore, the content of learning focuses primarily on increasing the learners' knowledge about organising and managing small businesses. An additional objective is to help increase and sharpen the skills of the learners in producing certain goods or providing services.

Identification of Learning Groups

Before setting up a learning group, the *penilik*, together with the village leaders, identify and select the types of occupations which are likely to be developed. Base line data are collected before the groups receive the learning funds. In order to keep track of the learning group's activities, the *penilik* carries out intensive monitoring and supervision. At the end of the six-month period, the same data about the group are taken again for comparison with the base line data. In addition to measuring their performances, other information pertaining to the learning process is also collected, such as content and method of learning processes for selecting learning components, group interaction, etc.

The Kasi PENMAS analyzes the data according to the guidelines provided by the National Directorate and writes a report to the Provincial Office, which then passes it on to the national level. Here a final analysis is conducted and the results are used to improve the methods of identifying the occupations and the participants, method of organising the learning groups, administrative aspects, etc.

As a result of the national seminar held in Jakarta in 1977, where the pilot projects were appraised and found successful, the learning fund programme was extended to 10 provinces. Based on the experiences with 10 provinces, the programme was further expanded in 1979 to all the 27 provinces of Indonesia.

Learning Process

Learning is intended to take place in the cognitive, affective and psychomotor domains. Learners are expected to expand their businesses with the help of the funds ranging from Rp. 50 thousand to Rp. 150 thousand - depending on the type of business

enterprise, which means that participants have to learn new methods of ordering materials, marketing products, etc. As the learners gain experience in management, they learn further from information gained in discussion sessions where the experience is analysed.

In the affective domain, the learners gain self-confidence and a new sense of responsibility that comes with added capital. One of the main objectives of the EOLP is to develop a sense of entrepreneurship. The learners also learn to abandon old habits and practices for new ones that may be more economical and effective. For example, those who previously worked alone may have spent all of their profits on personal or family needs. However, the group is now required to save a certain amount of their profits. This habit of saving may be acquired from the fellow members of the learning group.

In the psychomotor domain the learners often have to develop skills to use new and more efficient tools that they can purchase with the learning funds. With an expanded business they may also have to learn to make new models, employ new production techniques, etc.

Usually the learners in a group have different levels of skills. In this case the newer learners with lower skill levels are taught the skills by the leader(s) of the group by the apprenticeship method. However, it is usually the case that none of the learners in the groups are skilled in management and administrative skills. These skills are taught to the learners by the PENMAS *penilik* (field worker) or by resource persons who volunteer to teach the learning groups. Some of the management skills that are learned in the process are book-keeping, making inventories, marketing, advertising, selling, calculating prices and planning the ordering and storage of raw materials. The learning takes place in an actual work situation. That is, the learners are fully engaged in providing a service or producing a product and in marketing the product or service.

Target Population

The PENMAS target population includes all youth and adults with little or no schooling, including school dropouts between the ages of 10 and 45. It consists mainly of the rural population, which includes 16,279,927 illiterates (1980), many of whom are unskilled and landless labourers. PENMAS is especially concerned with the training of women, who comprise more than 50%

of the total population, half of whom have no formal education, and 70% of whom are illiterates. The main target population of the EOLP also includes 14,366,000 unemployed youths and adults, mainly between the ages of 12 and 25. The learning groups usually contain 5 to 10 members of the same sex, although both male and female learning groups have been formed.

Learners' Characteristics

The learners of a learning group may be dropouts from the formal school system or they may have already attended PENMAS basic education or vocational courses. Top priority is given to those who have previously attended PENMAS vocational courses. In fact, members of vocational-skills learning groups often stay together and receive learning funds for a follow-up activity. However, persons who have gained skills either through work experience or in vocational courses outside of PENMAS may also form learning groups and receive learning funds. The various types of learners who meet the criteria discussed above can be classified into three types:

- Learners who have certain skills but are unable to market the skills or find suitable employment;

- Learners who have certain skills and who have begun businesses on a very small scale;

- In some cases, learners who are unskilled and unemployed may enter a learning group where they learn the skills from the other members of the group in an apprenticeship situation.

Motivational Aspects

The recent policy of integrating EOLP with Kejar Paket A (literacy courses) strengthened the literacy learning a great deal. When in the implementation of PENMAS programmes, the EOLP precedes the Kejar Paket A, learners' participation in the first programme reinforces the participation in the second programme. With regard to promoting literacy learning through this approach, the line of thinking goes like this: "Let us help learners in generating learning activities which will ensure them a source of income or an increase in the existing one whose further improvement requires the functional use of literacy skills. In such a case, the demand for the literacy skills will automatically come from the learners themselves". This approach has

proved more effective in creating motivation for cognitive learning and in raising the existing motivation level in the process of practical application.

The social goal of the EOLP can be viewed both in terms of the individual and of the society as a whole. The individual goals are achieved by the learners through increasing their income and thereby raising their standard of living. From the social viewpoint the goal is to increase the level of business enterprise in Indonesia. This is a vital component of national development because it will open new employment opportunities and provide better goods and services to the communities. Increased business enterprise is also necessary for the development of the natural resources by the Indonesians themselves. The progress of EOLP can be seen from Table 7:

Table 7

Progress of EOLP During 1978 - 1983

Year	Number of		Learning Funds (000)
	EOLP Groups	Learners	
1978/1979	35	105	57.500
1979/1980	584	2.920	58.400
1980/1981	1.168	7.120	146.000
1981/1982	3.745	26.215	561.750
1982/1983	8.252	51.112	1.237.800
Total:	13.784	87.472	2.061.450

Steps of Implementation

Successful implementation of the EOLP calls for careful planning. The steps involved in organising the learning groups are as follows:

a) *Identification of types of occupations*: This is the first step in making an inventory of existing and possible occupations in the locality. The purpose is to analyse and identify those occupations which can be developed. Relevant information for consideration include:

- the type of occupation;

- the number of people engaged in such occupation;

- the occupations that provide the main source of income to the people of the community;

- the occupations that provide additional sources of income;

- potential income generating activities which have not yet been developed.

A list of potential or actual occupational undertakings is prepared to be used in developing the programme of employment oriented learning activity.

b) *Occupational analysis*: An analysis of the occupations identified can help reveal the factors that affect the success or failure of an undertaking. Special attention is given to three of these, namely, the production process, marketing, and consumer demand. In an occupation pertaining to production of certain goods, for instance, several considerations may have to be observed. Is a constant supply of raw materials guaranteed? Are there adequate skills and capital to run the business? Is there an easy market access for such goods? Will people buy them? Information to be analysed may be derived from a review of the inventory list or from an interview with the PENMAS [illegible] and includes the following points:

- The location: Is it strategically located? Is it easy to reach? Is the environment clean and healthy?

- Production tools and equipment: Are they adequate?

- Supply of raw materials: Are they easily available?

- Assets: What is the current value?

- Resource persons: Are there people with certain skills that may be required by the group?

- Marketing: What is being produced and how is it marketed? Are the group members willing to work together?

On the basis of the foregoing analysis, the occupations to be developed are determined. These steps, if followed in an orderly manner, will minimise the risk of failure.

c) *Determination of learning components*: After the existing and potential undertakings have been analysed and the learning group has been identified, the learning component of each occupation must be determined. Learning will occur only if specific skills are determined. In the EOLP, learning does not mean only acquiring new skills, but also discarding old and undesirable attitudes and skills. In other words, it means also unlearning and relearning. A "curriculum" for this kind of learning group must be developed together with the learners and resource persons. It must be constructed in such a way that it provides appropriate responses to the need of the learners and their groups.

d) *Selection of occupations to be developed*: The EOLP may be implemented in the form of a learning group or individual learner. To date, however, PENMAS uses the first approach through the groups. To support these groups, PENMAS provides a learning fund; the amount of the fund depends on the type of occupation chosen by the group. Eligibility for the fund is contingent upon the following criteria:

- The group has already begun to engage in the production process.

- The group has already identified the learning components.

- The group has already made an estimate of increased earning because of the fund.

- The group has already estimated the savings they will be able to make in course of time.

- The group has already estimated the time when they will be able to help set up a new learning group.

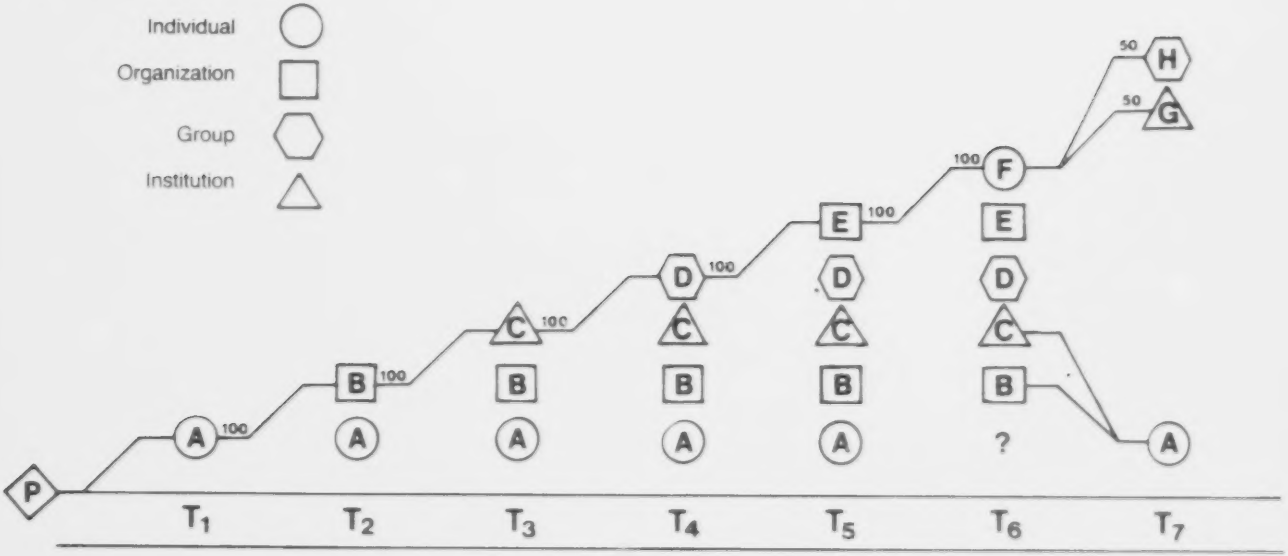
e) *Rotation of funds*: The group receiving a learning fund is expected to pass on the fund to a new group at an appropriate time, depending on the progress they make in their business undertaking, along with the experience they gain during the process. In either case, a minimum of one new group is expected to be generated by the recipient group eventually.

The rotating funds come from the profits of the group as a result of the group's productivity. PENMAS does not push the group to save money for this purpose, but the group members are expected to train themselves to manage the occupation well enough to make profits.

The amount of funds which the groups should create is the same amount they received as learning funds. But that does not mean that the entire amount must be delivered to one group, for not all occupations have the same capital requirements. The first group may deliver funds to one, two or three groups, but the total must not be less than what they received.

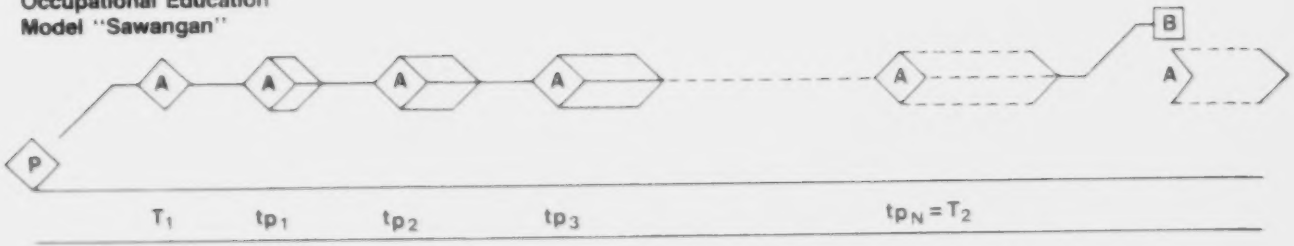
Once the first group passes on the funds to the next group or groups, it is the responsibility of the first group to guide the next group until it starts making profits and saves enough to create a new rotating fund. The process of rotating funds can be understood from the following schematic presentations in Figures 2-4.

Figure 2
Occupational Education
Occupational NFE



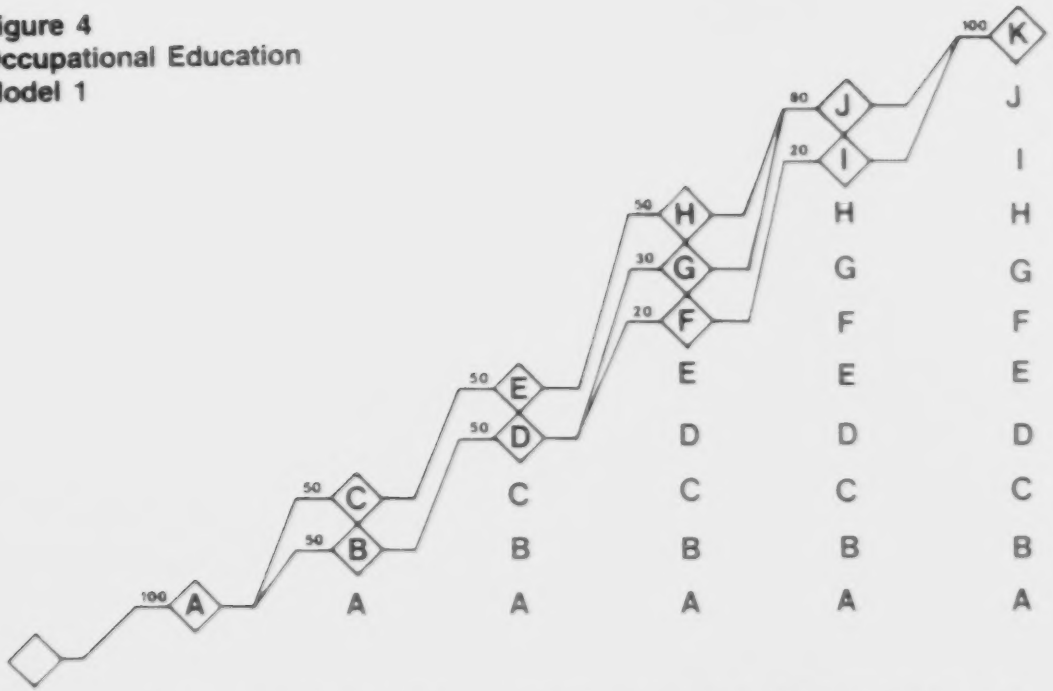
Learning funds awarded to institution may be passed on to organization groups, individuals etc.

Figure 3
Occupational Education
Model "Sawangan"



On the first production, the group A begins to motivate the community to set up new or similar enterprises. At one point throughout the course of development (T2), A establishes a new group to whom the general rules apply.

Figure 4
Occupational Education
Model 1



New learning funds generated by the institutions, organizations, groups or individuals, may be awarded to more than one group or organization as long as the total amount shall be not less than the original.
If the new group needs more than what the first group received, then several new generated learning funds may be collected to help them.

Evaluation

In order to ascertain the performance of the EOLP Programme, PENMAS made an analysis study in seven provinces. For the purpose of these studies PENMAS took 430 samples, 60 from each province. The aspects of the study included skills, knowledge, attitudes, income, savings, book-keeping, record learning components and process of learning.

The results of these studies showed a 60% average increase of income among the participants. Every group saved money for rotating funds which averaged Rp. 5,000 a month, and every group increased its capital on average by 70-80%. So the conclusions of these studies are that (a) a group can succeed if its members learn about all the aspects involved, i.e., book-keeping, marketing, purchasing, etc.; (b) a learning group fails when its members do not learn anything and continue to pursue their occupations by traditional methods. For groups' savings, capital and income situation see Tables 8 and 9.

Table 8: Steps of EOLP and Indicators of Success in Implementation

Development Process	Conditions for successful progr. implementation	Indicators of success			
		Learning process	Increased income	Fund revolvement	Progr. expansion
Preparation	1. Identification of types of occupation 2. Occupational Analysis 3. Identification of learning components 4. Recruitment of learners 5. Agreement among learners 6. Agreement between learners and penilik regarding the respective rights and responsibilities 7. Penmas supervision	- The existence of learner's registration - The existence of works agreements The existence of identified cognitive/ affective/skills to be developed	- The existence of work plans - Measures of estimated increased income	- The existence of plans to generate new learning fund - The existence of plans to utilize the new learning funds	- The existence of a list of new groups to receive learning fund
Implementation	1. Schedule of learning 2. Learner's motivation 3. Deciding on business site 4. Deciding on learning resources 5. Penmas supervision 6. Provision of learning materials 7. Reward of learning fund	- Measures of improved knowledge and skills - Measures of improved attitudes - The existence of identified cognitive/ affective/skills to be developed - The existence of basic records for purchase and sale and progress in learners activities	- Measures of increased income - Measures of increased investment	- The existence of generated fund earmarked for new learning funds - Evidence of generated new funds	- The existence of new learning groups receiving new learning funds

Table 8: Steps of EOLP and Indicators of Success in Implementation

Development Process	Conditions for successful progr. implementation	Indicators of success			
		Learning process	Increased income	Fund revolvement	Progr. expansion
Follow up	1. Assisting new recipient of learning fund 2. Outlining reports 3. Penmas supervision	- The existence of new learning groups - The existence of learning resource emanating from learners - Measures of learners ability to keep simple administration	- Measures of improved production and quality - Measures of improved living standard of learners	- The existence of plans to use new learning funds	- The existence of apprenticeship activities - The existence of identified recipients of new learning funds - The existence of multifarious occupational activities

Table 9: Recapitulation of Study Analysis of EOLP

No.	Province	Kab.	Kec.	IGLG	Aver age of part.	T1					T2					New IGLG	
						No. of part.	Average earning	Capital (000)	Learn fund (000)	Saving (000)	No. of part.	Average earning	Total Capital	Accumul. Capital	Saving	Number	No. of Learners
1.	DKI Jakarta	5	23	23	16	115	17.759	6.536	3.400	—	115	26.727	13.007	6.471	1.773	—	—
2.	C. Java	11	18	18	14	140	13.206	1.430	2.250	—	140	18.495	6.744	5.314	1.840	54	274
3.	E. Java	7	18	18	12	110	6.107	1.080	1.820	—	110	12.633	4.897	2.817	1.684	—	—
4.	N. Sumatra	7	18	18	20	91	8.551	3.893	2.750	—	91	18.475	8.209	4.316	1.152	—	—
5.	S. Sulawesi	9	23	23	23	190	9.129	3.967	3.125	—	190	13.574	19.965	15.998	1.543	—	—
6.	Jawa Barat	8	18	18	18	120	7.150	5.120	2.250	—	120	10.275	10.250	5.130	1.070	22	110
	Total:	47	118	116	103	766	61.902	23.037	15.595	—	766	100.179	63.076	40.043	9.053	125	620
	Average:	8	20	20	20	127	10.317	3.837	2.599	—	728	67.696	10.512	6.674	1.509	—	—

Case-Study Model I: A Cake-Making Learning Group

This learning group consisted of five women who had been making and selling a locally popular cake on their own. They all possessed the basic skills needed for such an enterprise. After the formation of the group and the award of the learning funds, the group members continued to work on their own, but now they were able to collectively buy the raw materials in bulk quantities and market their products collectively. The amount of funds awarded to this group was small, totalling US $ 45, divided roughly equally among the five members. However, even with this small input of capital, along with guidance in organisation and problem solving, the members were able to increase their incomes and work efficiently.

The key to the initial success of this group was the integrated package of technical guidance (in management and organisation) and capital that the PENMAS field worker was able to provide under the Learning Fund Programme. With the assistance of the PENMAS field worker, weekly group meetings were organised to discuss problems and develop solutions. The most immediate problem identified was the control that a middleman had over their enterprises. Lacking capital, they were forced to buy raw materials from and sell their finished products to a middleman, who could control the prices of both, keeping workers' profits artificially low. The women had been fairly content with this arrangement, although they received a poor return on effort invested, for the middleman handled all of their administrative arrangements and marketing. After analysing the situation, and with the help of additional capital from the Learning Fund, they were able to bypass the middleman by having one of the members take the responsibility for marketing. This solution is not as simple as it might seem, since, although exploitative, the relationship with the middleman was secure. Group members needed much added self-confidence before being able to take such a risk. This process emphasises the importance of group discussion, analysis, and trust in the field worker as a pre-requisite for joint risk-taking in small enterprises.

In addition to problem solving, the group also gained new skills in cake-making. Previously they had made only one kind of cake, but the PENMAS field worker suggested that they experiment with different kinds of materials. They found that these new cakes did not sell very well, possibly because their technique was still not refined, but they did not lose money in the experimentation. The important thing was that they were exposed to

the concept of experimentation in enterp[illegible], a rare opportunity for many of the poor in Indonesian villages. Again, it was the combination of both funds and guidance that enabled this type of learning to take place.

This group had been formed only six months before the time of the case study from which this information was taken, but even in this short period *attitudinal changes* were evident in the group. The most striking was the learners' attitude toward *savings*. They had previously saved little, perhaps because they had never had extra money to set aside. One condition for Learning Fund Programme assistance was that the group must start to set aside some money to be used as "seed money" for other groups. This requirement got the learners into the habit of saving on a regular basis. They also became used to saving a part of their profits for purchasing more raw materials, a function previously handled by the middleman. Their success led them to adopt a more positive attitude towards savings in general, and group members began to save for household needs and for the possible expansion of their businesses.

The financial administration of the group is left to one person. However, the other members of the group study and examine the books at the regular weekly meetings. They are able to do this because all members of the group have at least basic literacy skills. They take this quite seriously, feeling that they are indeed responsible for the success of the group. One observer suggested that because of the high degree of motivation involved, such a situation would provide an excellent opportunity to teach basic functional literacy and numeracy skills if the group contained members who were illiterate.

Case-Study Model II: A Furniture-Making Learning Group

A small furniture-making business had been started by two persons about two years before it was awarded learning funds and became a learning group. One of the two original members had been trained in carpentry about ten years earlier in a PENMAS vocational skills course. He and another person started the small business, which made tables and chairs out of wood. During the first two years they added three more employees. After receiving the learning funds, three members of the original enterprise left the group to begin their own branch business, while seven unskilled school dropouts were accepted into the group as new learners.

Several changes have taken place in the enterprise since it became a learning group with the addition of learning funds totalling US $ 240. For one thing, the PENMAS field worker who awarded the learning funds to the group has provided guidance in small business administration skills such as basic book-keeping, keeping inventories, etc. Before the learning group was started, they did not keep any books or records. Profit and loss were a matter of guesswork. Now the business is conducted more systematically. For example, the cost of maintaining tools and equipment is now calculated as a part of production costs, whereas before, such expenses were not accounted for.

The income of each member of the learning group increased significantly after the group had been formed and had received the learning funds. The chart below illustrates the increase in monthly income of four members of this group:

Monthly income before formation of the learning group	Monthly income after formation of the learning group
Rp. 10,000	Rp. 20,000
Rp. 15,000	Rp. 27,000
Rp. 21,000	Rp. 34,000
Rp. 0	Rp. 6,000

US $ 1 = Rp. 625

The method of dividing the tasks up among the group members has changed since the enterprise became a learning group. Previously, the founder of the enterprise, who was a skilled carpenter, simply ordered others to do things. He would have to demonstrate certain things, but it was strictly a boss-labourer relationship. All of the ordering of materials, selling of the goods, etc. was handled by the second founder. However, since becoming a learning group, the learning takes place through more participatory methods, e.g., most of the skill training involves discussions, questions and answers, etc. Furthermore, all members of the group are now involved in purchasing raw materials and in determining the selling price of the products. Those who would normally be considered "labourers" are now considered "learners" who have rights and responsibilities in conducting the business. However, this is not to deny the reality

that the original founders of the group are still "first among equals". Nevertheless, the "learners" in the PENMAS groups do have better opportunities to learn to become independent than the "labourers" in ordinary businesses.

Previously the enterprise was limited by capital and by a lack of knowledge of the many items of furniture that could be produced. However, after receiving the learning funds, the group is now able to make a number of different items and of various qualities. Time, manpower, materials, etc. as well as potential market are all calculated in determining the selling price of the products, whereas previously this could not be done. The group is now thinking towards the future in terms of forming a co-operative for obtaining a loan from the bank. The group now has a good chance of succeeding one of these plans because co-operative assistance and government bank development loans are usually only awarded to groups or enterprises that are well organised and maintain proper administrative procedures.

Discussion of the Case Studies

As these two models have evolved through experience, their inherent strengths and weaknesses have become evident. To reach stated programme objectives and goals, differing input must be made to adjust to the idiosyncracies of each approach.

In order for Model I to be effective, it is important that technical inputs and financial assistance be given in an integrated package. If a gap in time occurs between learning and application, the programme will be less effective. The immediate application of skills and knowledge in a real work situation is the key to success, reflecting an important principle of nonformal education. From experience, PENMAS has also found that it is important for individual members of the group to have already attempted some sort of enterprise on their own before entering the group. This gives a clear indication of the motivation and initiative essential for success in small business operations.

Model II is perhaps a more unusual method for implementing income-generating group programmes. This model is highly efficient since capital investment has already been made, albeit on a small scale. It has been realized that such groups should not begin with more than 3 or 4 employees, since more persons might indicate a business that is already fairly well developed and hence not appropriate for assistance from the Learning Fund

Programme. In this model the owners become the resource persons for training new group members in the basic skills of the business. The persons already in the business, however, must learn new and more complex skills as the business is expanded.

PENMAS also works with the group to institute co-operative management and administrative styles and procedures. In some Indonesian village operations, people are keeping books and saving money for investment as a result of small enterprises assisted by the Learning Fund Programme. Both models share a number of problems. One main problem is the *control of capital resources*. In the first model, resources tend to be controlled by a financial monitor (field workers, village head, or group leader) while in the second, control of capital continues to reside completely with the original owner of the enterprise. PENMAS has worked hard to devise ways in which the funds can be awarded to the group as a whole, thus spreading responsibility. Due to this, much group work must focus on the development of co-operative management practices and decision-making. However, decisions concerning profit and business expansion should be made by the group as a whole.

Another problem encountered in both models is the lack of *qualified resource persons* to provide on-going technical assistance to the group. The learners, almost from the very moment they receive learning funds, start to conduct their business differently and begin to acquire new experiences. However, a basic tenet of nonformal education is that such experiences have to be discussed, analysed and processed in order to become meaningful learning. Attitude changes and skill acquisition are greatly improved when capable resource persons are available to act as facilitators. Besides this, resource persons are needed to teach management, administration, marketing, and problem solving skills to all group members.

4. CONCLUSION

There is a saying that illiteracy seems to go hand in hand with poverty and backwardness. Another saying is that the gap which exists between "the haves" and "the have nots" is essentially not material in nature but educational. The people who do not possess functional knowledge or information and skills are unable to raise their standard of living.

Education in Indonesia should ultimately be directed towards the socio-economic development of the country. In order to achieve the national goals that will result in eradicating poverty, spreading full literacy, decreasing the birth rate, and providing full employment, people must first learn how to learn, gain the self-confidence that they can learn, and come to feel that learning will improve their lives. Through learning they will get to know the things that are immediately useful to them.

In the past, we erroneously tried to tackle the problem of lack of skills (including the skills in reading and writing) through teaching those skills without considering the implications for earning capacity. Now, with the EOLP, literacy teaching is intimately related to providing a permanent source of income to the learners.

It is still not known whether the programme is effective and making an efficient use of resources. It has not been proved that PENMAS, as an educational institution, is the best organisation to dispense funds. But the direction seems to be right. PENMAS is trying to overcome this problem by conducting training for all its field workers involved in the Learning Fund Programme, so that they will not only teach these necessary skills but will also be able to recruit and train appropriate local resource persons.

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Chapter 4

LEARNING STRATEGIES FOR POST-LITERACY AND CONTINUING EDUCATION IN NEPAL

by

L. N. Belbase

1. BACKGROUND AND CONTEXT

1.1 Geographical, Political, Economic and Related Aspects

The small kingdom of Nepal, which has always been an independent sovereign kingdom, is a land-locked country between India and China. The nearest sea coast is approximately 1,127 km. from its southern border. The northern boundary of Nepal merges with the Tibetan region of the People's Republic of China. To the east it has borders with the Indian states of Sikkim and Bengal and to its south lie the Indian states of Uttar Pradesh and Bihar. Nepal has an area of 147,181 sq. km. and is located between longitudes 26°22' and 30°27' North and latitudes 80°40' and 88°12' East. The average distance between the Mechi river in the east to the Mahakali river in the west is about 885 km. The north-south width is not uniform: at its widest in the west, it is about 240 km., while in the east it shrinks to about 145 km.

Most of the country consists of high mountains and rolling hills, which account for about 83 per cent of the total land area, the remaining 17 per cent being made up of the flat lands of Terai. The altitude varies from 152 m. above sea level in the Terai in the south to more than 8,000 m. in the northern Himalayas. It is of course in the Himalayan region that Mounts Everest, Kanchanjungha, Makalu, Dhaulagiri and Annapurna are located.

The only nation in the world whose official religion is Hinduism, Nepal is also the birthplace of Lord Buddha, "The Light of Asia", and of the legendary Sita, the heroine of the

epic Ramayana. The people of Nepal mainly practise the Hindu and Buddhist religions.

Nepal has a population of about 15 million people, of which women constitute 49.4 per cent (1980 census). The annual population growth rate is 2.7 per cent, and the total fertility rate is 6.3, which is almost the highest in the South-Asian region. If this rate were to continue, the population of Nepal would reach 30 million within about 26 years, whereas food production is increasing only by 2 per cent; thus there is a wide gap between the rate of food production and population growth.

The population of Nepal is composed of various ethnic groups. The inhabitants of higher altitudes, Tamangs, Sherpas, Kirantis, Limbus and Bhotiyas, are drawn from Mongolian stock. The mid-mountains are populated by Tamangs, Magars, Gurungs, Sunwars, Newars, Brahmins and Chhetriyas. In the inner Terai region, Tharu, Danuwar, Chepang, Magar and Indian immigrants hold a dominant position.

Nepal is predominantly an agricultural country. About 93 per cent of the total population are dependent on agriculture or related occupations. The main crops are paddy, maize, millet, barley, wheat, potato, jute, sugarcane and oil seeds. Tobacco is also an important cash crop. Tea is produced in a limited area of one of the eastern districts (Ilam). After agriculture, the most important source of income is from cottage industries.

Two-thirds of the people live in the hills and the mountains, where one-third of the food is produced. The average hectare of available land in the hills supports nine persons as compared to three persons in the Terai. The total cultivated land area is 3.1 million hectares, of which 38 per cent lies in the hilly region and 62 per cent in the Terai.

The most important economic resource is forests, which cover about one third of the total land area. The main products of the forests are timber, rafters, beams and faggots. In addition, the forests provide raw materials for the manufacture of furniture, paper and matches. Some of the minor by-products are herbs, drugs, fruits, tanning agents, bamboo, resin and turpentine.

For purposes of regional planning, the country is divided into five different development regions. However, from the administrative standpoint, these five regions are further divided

into a total of 14 zones and 75 districts. The smallest unit of a district is the village panchayat with about 4,000 to 5,000 inhabitants.

1.2 Educational System

Earlier forms of education in Nepal were associated with the Buddhist and Hindu religions, both of which placed great emphasis on the preparation of priests. The modern era of education in Nepal began in the early 1950s. In order to provide professional advice on educational development, a ministry of education was created with the appropriate staff. In 1954/55, a National Education Planning Commission mapped out a long-term plan for the development of education in Nepal. Local initiative led to the establishment of many elementary and secondary schools. With the help of foreign aid a teacher-training college was established, adult literacy classes were started, and provision was made for preparing textual materials.

In 1951 there were in the whole country only 321 primary schools, 11 secondary schools and 2 colleges. Table 1 shows the rate and extent of the progress that has taken place in primary education:

Table 1

Primary Education from 1951 to 1980

	1951	1961	1970	1980
No. of schools	321	4,001	7,272	10,130
No. of students	8,505	182,533	408,471	1,067,912
No. of teachers	n.a.	n.a.	18,674	27,805

Source: Sharma, S.R. et.al. *Education Day Souvenir 1983*. Kathmandu: National Education Committee, 1983, p. 7.

In Nepal it has been primary education which has made the major contribution to the increase in the number of literate people.

During the first decade (1971-1981) of the National Education Plan, there was continued growth both in terms of educational opportunities and in enrollment figures. In the 1980/81 school year over 1.3 million children were enrolled in primary schools, 157,509 students in lower secondary schools, 144,331 in secondary schools, and 47,882 in the institutions of higher learning; the number of primary schools increased to 10,130, those of lower secondary schools to 3,501, secondary schools to 785, and institutions of higher education to 103. There was a considerable increase in enrollment during the period 1975-80. For example, primary enrollment went up by about 133 per cent, lower secondary by 125 per cent, secondary enrollment by 80 per cent, and post-secondary enrollment by 64 per cent. (1)

In addition, a few technical schools are being set up to produce basic-level technicians. Of these, six schools are now operating in rural areas.

The educational structure at the school level consists of five-year primary education, two-year lower secondary education, and three-year secondary education. At the tertiary level two-year programmes lead to a bachelor's and master's degree respectively. On the technical side the pattern is different, with three-year instruction plus one-year on-the-job training. In addition, adult and nonformal education programmes are being implemented in order to provide educational opportunities for a larger sector of the population.

1.3 Literacy Situation: Programme and Policies

The majority of the Nepali population is illiterate, unskilled and lives in rural areas. According to 1980 estimates, over 75 per cent of the population are illiterate. However, women's literacy is estimated to be only 6 per cent. The following table shows the literacy rates in Nepal from 1951 to 1981:

Table 2

Literacy Rates in Nepal from 1952 to 1981

	Age Group	Male	Female	Average
1952/54 census	5 yrs +	7.8	0.7	4.3
1961 census	15 yrs +	16.3	1.5	8.9
1971 census	10 yrs +	24.7	3.6	14.3
1975 estimate (1)	6 yrs +	33.4	5.0	19.2
1981 estimate (2)	6 yrs +	43.1	5.6	24.3

Sources: (1) National Education Committee, Classification of Districts by Educational Status, 1976.

(2) National Planning Commission, Sixth Plan (1980-1985), p. 85

The above data on literacy rates in Nepal from 1952 to 1981 show a gradual increase in the percentage of literates, the highest rise being in the decade of the 1970s. The major factors contributing to this increase appear to have been:

- the growth in primary enrollment;
- the expansion of adult literacy programmes;
- an increase in self-learning activities and opportunities for informal education (for which no data are available).

The National Education System Plan (1971) had set primary-level education the goal of making individuals literate. Thus, all children completing the first three years of primary education were regarded as literate.

One of the problems of greatest concern for the planners in Nepal is the high proportion of out-of-school population at the primary age level. From the data available for 1979, the primary school enrollment ratio was 65.4 per cent, of which the male enrollment was 93.9 per cent and the female enrollment 37.7 per cent. This indicated that 34.6 per cent in the 6 to 10-year-old age group were out-of-school (6.1 per cent of the boys and 65.3

per cent of the girls). In numbers, 653,000 children in the 6 to 10-year-old age group were not attending school. Of these, the girls accounted for over 593,000. The case was similar in the other relevant age group: 84 per cent of the 11 to 15-year-old age group were out-of-school. In addition, the failure rate in the School Leaving Certificate Examination (SLC) is as high as 65 to 70 per cent. The dropout rates in the primary grades are 50 to 55 per cent. Then there is a substantial number of children who never enter a school but have to take up some kind of economic activity - even without basic literacy skills.

Economic Development Plans have specified a number of steps for promoting adult education in Nepal. The Fifth Plan (1975-1980), for instance, stressed the extension of literacy classes, the education of illiterate girls and women, recruiting and training more female adult teachers, and the inclusion in the curriculum of knowledge and skills related to cottage industry, agriculture, family planning, health and sanitation. Similarly, the Sixth Plan (1980-1985) emphasized the expansion of functional literacy programmes, the establishment of a network of about 620 reading centres, the organisation of functional literacy classes (especially in areas covered by integrated rural development projects), and the encouragement of co-operation between local panchayats and social organisations. The targets for new adult literacy as laid down in the Fourth Plan (1970-1975), Fifth Plan (1975-1980) and Sixth Plan (1980-1985) were 500,000, 600,000 and 900,000 adults respectively. During 1980/81 there were 700 functional adult literacy centres in various parts of the country. However, until now only 60 per cent of the target figures have actually been attained.

Some of the problems that the adult education programme is facing at present are:

- high dropout rates;
- a shortage of adequate instructional materials;
- lack of technical support, from the relevant agencies to the field-level workers;
- lack of regular supervision; and
- inadequate teaching staff with respect both to number and training.

From the foregoing, it can be seen that Nepal has made a beginning to an adult education programme which will shortly reach a greater proportion of the illiterate population.

2. LITERACY AND RELATED PROGRAMMES

2.1 Development of Literacy Programmes

Adult Education in the 1950s

In the early 1950s, literacy programmes were started in Nepal as a part of the adult education programme organised under the Ministry of Education. One of the major recommendations of the National Education Planning Commission (1954) was the early development of an extensive adult education programme with the immediate emphasis on the teaching of adult literacy. The commission, with respect to literacy goals, proposed 10,000 new literates annually by 1960, and 100,000 annually by 1965. It proposed adult classes for some by 1960, for all who wanted them by 1965, and village radios and libraries for all by 1965. As a result of these recommendations the Bureau of Adult Education was established, with responsibility for organising, administering and supervising the entire adult literacy programme in the 1950s. As early as 1953, the Ministry of Education, in co-operation with the United States Operation Mission (USOM), had invited Dr. Frank Laubach of the World Literacy Foundation to Nepal to work with a team of three educators and two artists employed by the Ministry for six months. The team prepared a set of five charts, a primer, and a second reader in four parts as the beginning of a reading series for teaching adult literacy. In order to prepare teachers, the Teacher Training Centre was opened. In the meantime a comprehensive adult education programme was laid out by the Director of Adult Education in 1956, and an administrative handbook was prepared to guide those who would work on the programme.

After these preparations the first classes were opened near Kathmandu (the capital city) on a semi-experimental basis. By July 1957 about 290 classes had been opened in all parts of Nepal. The next year, 346 classes were organised, eleven new pamphlets prepared, and a fortnightly literacy bulletin introduced. Consequently, by July 1958 over 10,000 adults had been taught to read and to write (Wood, 1983). Table 3 gives an overview of the literacy programme in the 1950s.

Table 3

The Adult Literacy Programme in the 1950s

Year	No. of Classes	No. of Students Given Six Months Training	Materials Printed No. Titles	No. Copies
1954			5 Charts	5,000
			5 Readers	25,000
1956	39	1,000	4 Charts	4,000
			4 Readers	40,000
1957	301	7,525	2 Charts	2,000
			1 Reader	10,000
			(5 Reprints	125,000)
			Newspaper	10,000
1958	220	5,500	5 Pamphlets	50,000
			Newspaper	26,000
1959	140	3,500	Newspaper	26,000
1960	815	20,375	Newspaper	26,000
1961	402	10,050	(5 Reprints	120,000)
			Newspaper	16,000
Sub-Total:	1917	47,950	26 + 1 Newspaper	485,000

Gurkha soldiers made fully literate: 3000 per year (British and Indian estimates based on Gurkha data).

Source: *Six Years of Educational Progress in Nepal*. Kathmandu: College of Education, 1962, p. 13.

In the 1950s, the education of adults was limited to adult literacy classes. A variety of approaches were tried out. Since adult education was "conceived to include any instruction, group or individual, given to persons beyond the secondary school age, roughly 15 years" (Wood and Knall, 1962), the major approaches included literacy training, instruction in health care, agricultural and home economics extension services, training in cottage industries, village development training, village libraries, radio education, Panchayat development, and similar activities. In 1958, Radio Nepal began its first adult education broadcasts, and 57 radio sets were distributed to towns and villages in Kathmandu. Since there was no provision in the

programme for the maintenance and the distribution of additional sets to distant parts of the country, the broadcasts were discontinued in 1960.

Village libraries for adult literacy were operated by the school teachers in the local primary schools. Copies of all of the adult literacy materials and the primary school textbooks formed a nucleus for the library. According to one estimate, by 1959 there were more than 150 village libraries in the country (Wood, 1983).

Wood and Knall (1962) have reported that a literacy newspaper, started in 1959, was discontinued almost immediately, as were a number of other literacy publications at this time. They concluded that "the adult literacy programme during the past decade can only be described as 'erratic'; the result has been wasteful as well as ineffective in terms of the Commission's goals" (p. 64). Considering these issues they suggested the following for the post-literacy and continuing education of the neo-literates:

> Most of the adult students have been offered only a six-months course without a follow-up activity. Unless the student is carried through the advanced readers, introduced to the literacy newspaper and pamphlets on health and agriculture, and other subjects, and then provided with a continuous flow of literacy materials, he will lapse into illiteracy again and all efforts will have been wasted. Every effort should be made to recapture the interest and good beginning made by the 50,000 adults that have thus far been exposed to literacy training, and provide them with additional instruction and materials, even before undertaking new classes. (p. 64)

From the above it can be seen that during the first decade an organised effort was made towards developing literacy programmes for the illiterate. A number of readers, newspapers and booklets were printed for adults. Primary school teachers were given training in the methods of teaching literacy to adults. Through these efforts over 50,000 adults were exposed to literacy programmes. However, the indifference of the then planners and implementors to literacy programmes greatly impeded progress and brought a setback to the entire endeavour.

In the early 1960s (1962-1965) a policy was introduced to consolidate the adult education programme. A new curriculum was prepared which prescribed a nine-month instead of a six-month course. The main course components included:

- six months of literacy training, where the adults were taught how to read, write and count;
- three months of classroom teaching, with the emphasis on need-based knowledge and skills related to health, agriculture, home-science, crafts, co-operatives, industry and other areas.

In the process of consolidation, a district-level adult education teacher training programme was also organised. In this programme 2,654 adult educators received basic training in the methods of teaching adults. During this period a total of 66,375 adults became literate through this programme.

In the second half of the 1960s (1965-1970) the adult education programme covered a wider scope and involved in its implementation various educational institutions, government agencies and different socio-political organisations. As a result of these efforts a total of 97,775 adults were made literate in a five-year period.

In 1971 the National Education System Plan (NESP) was introduced, which envisaged adult education as a vital factor in promoting the all-round development of illiterate adults in the context of national development. NESP has two sets of programmes: adult literacy programmes and functional adult education programmes. In the beginning, functional adult education was introduced to groups of 20 adults each in a secondary school where vocational courses such as agriculture, home science and health education were taught. Two teachers were assigned to each group. The programme was of ten months duration and included instruction in both literacy and vocational skills. However, the NESP Mid-Term Evaluation Report (1975) stressed further the need for an adult education programme that was more functional and relevant to the needs of the adult learners.

In 1977 the Centre for Educational Research, Innovation and Development (CERID) was commissioned by the Ministry of Education to devise a flexible adult education programme package geared to

the actual needs of adult learners which would bring about a significant change in their attitudes, behaviours and skills. This package included two types of programmes: the "uni-message programme" and the "multi-message programme". The method adopted was sometimes formal and sometimes nonformal, depending on the nature of the teaching situation and timing. The project was carried out on an experimental basis in two districts in each of the four development regions of the country. At the end of the pilot project the multi-message programme was found to be effective and popular. Thus, since 1978 the Ministry of Education has launched the multi-message functional literacy programme in various parts of the country.

2.2 Present Status of Adult Education Programmes

Currently, the Adult Education Division of the Ministry of Education and Culture conducts three different types of programmes: (a) a basic literacy programme of four months, (b) a functional literacy programme of six months, and (c) a nonformal education programme of six months. However, the main emphasis has been given thus far to functional literacy, which is now shifting towards nonformal education.

Initially the functional literacy programme was implemented in 25 districts, with 8 or 9 centres in each district. Simultaneously, a massive nonformal programme was launched in the Jhapa district (East Terai) with 50 centres. Evaluation of the programme revealed that 72.14 per cent of all the participating adults benefited from this programme. In 1979/80 the programme was extended to a total of 52 districts with 400 centres in scattered locations. For the year 1981/82 the target was to open an additional 2,500 centres in the selected 52 districts, thus providing literacy to an approximate total of 100,000. Of the 2,500 centres, 1,500 were to provide general literacy to adults, and 1,000 were to organise functional literacy programmes (see Table 4). Several organisations would be involved, including the Women's Services Co-ordination Committee, the Women's Organisation, the Youth Affairs Co-ordination Committee, the Small Farmers Development Programme, and the Leprosy Control Project.

Table 4

Progress of the Literacy Programme
During 1978 - 1983

Fiscal Year	No. of Districts	No. of Adult Education Centres	No. of Adults Made Literate	Achievement Rates (Percentages)
1977/78	8	46 (experimental)	2,572	100
1978/79	26	397	14,429	72.14
1979/80	52	250	10,000	27.77
1980/81	29	448	20,664	73.87
1981/82	52	1,500 (Literacy)	60,000 (Target)	no data available
		2,000 (Functional Literacy)	40,000 (Target)	no data available
1982/83	55	no data available	150,000 (Target)	no data available

Source: Adult and Nonformal Education Division, Ministry of Education, Kathmandu, 1982.

In the late 1970s the Ministry of Education made resources available to the District Education Offices (DEO) for opening centres on the basis of a centrally approved programme and budget. Since then there has been a change in procedure, and the present practice is that a substantial amount of time is spent on planning, programming and selection of the districts.

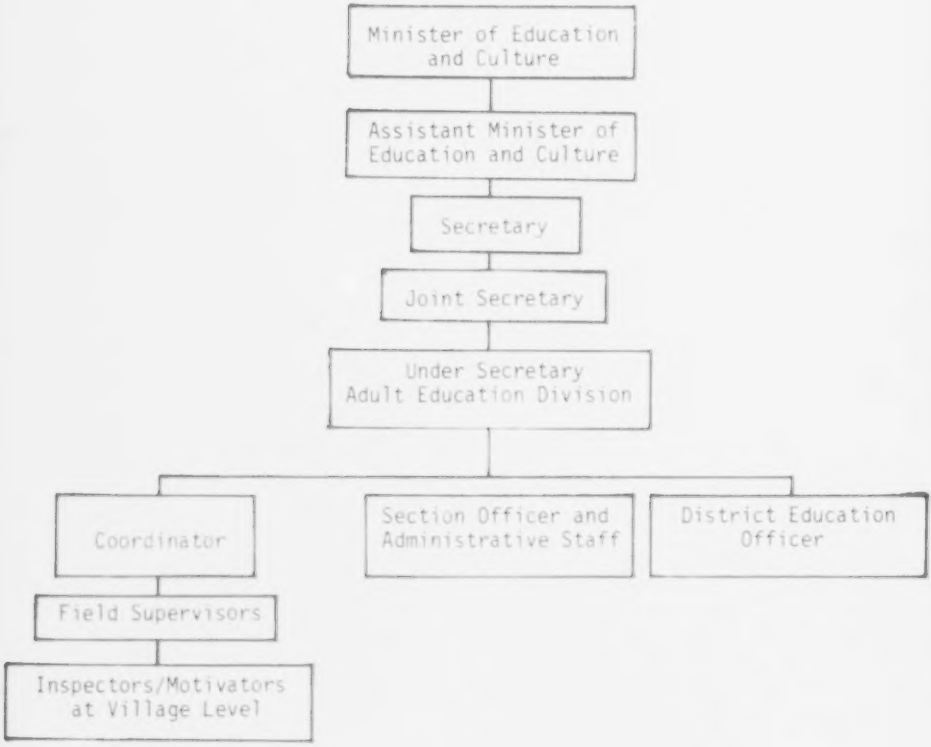
Each adult education centre caters for about 40 participants in the 14 to 15-year age group. The classes meet two hours a day for 6 months in the mornings or evenings, depending on which is most convenient for the participants. Literacy and numeracy are taught during the first four months, and skill-based functional courses during the last two months. There are some 28 booklets on various subjects. All the skill training is taught by the experts on the relevant subject who are released for this purpose from the Ministry of Health, the Ministry of Agriculture, and the Agriculture Development Bank.

These adult education classes are sponsored by the Ministry of Education and Culture and are in progress in 55 districts, covering 150,000 learners during the fiscal year 1982/83.

The following organisation chart of the Ministry of Education and Culture shows the administrative set-up of the adult education programme in Nepal.

Figure 1

Organisation Chart of the Ministry of Education and Culture



The Adult Education Division circulates policies, plans and directives to the District Education Offices, which in turn implement the programme with the help of co-ordinators, motivators and voluntary organisations.

2.3 Nonformal Programmes

The term "nonformal education" is not used very frequently by Nepali educators and planners. However, a great deal of nonformal education in the form of various training programmes is under way. According to a study carried out by New Educational Reform Associates (New ERA) in 1974, there were thirty programmes of nonformal skill training, nine organisations involved in materials development, eleven in various extension activities and, additionally, four district adult literacy programmes. It should also be realised that craft training, religious instruction and home-taught literacy are only a few instances of indigenous forms of nonformal education which have existed for some time. Technical skill training, agricultural extension services, co-operative development training and panchayat training for helping people organise at the local level, develop positive attitudes toward family planning, conservation, etc. are some examples of a newer type of nonformal education.

Nonformal education forms part of the general framework for development programmes in Nepal. The most widespread methods of disseminating knowledge are demonstration, lecture, radio, apprenticeship, newspaper and supplementary reading materials; less widespread teaching aids include slides and documentary films. Through these media and methods the nonformal programmes have been meeting, at least partially, the educational and skill requirements of some of the out-of-school population of both adolescents and adults.

3. MAJOR LEARNING STRATEGIES FOR POST-LITERACY AND CONTINUING EDUCATION

It is estimated that over 850,000 adults have been made literate in Nepal since the introduction of adult education programmes in the early 1950s. The Ministry of Education assumed the overall leadership, with several governmental agencies and nongovernmental organisations participating in the literacy campaign. The number of literates has increased because of greater enrollment of children in the elementary schools as well. In the past, for the neo-literates and those who cannot pursue their formal learning beyond the elementary levels, there have not been any post-literacy or follow-up programmes. However, some multi-sectoral activities and programmes have been fulfilling the functions of post-literacy and continuing education. In the following pages, some of these strategies are described briefly.

3.1 Small Farmers Development Programme (SFDP)

The main objective of the SFDP is to help engage the unutilized labour, skill and available resources of small farmers in production activities in a planned way so as to raise their standard of living. Under the SFDP programme the farmers are provided with various types of financial, income-generating agricultural inputs and social services in a package form. Most of these activities are implemented by the SFDP groups organised at the village level under the pre-formulated group plan and in close co-ordination with the Ministries of Agriculture, Education, Health, etc.

The SFDP has created a learning environment where the retention, continuation and application of literacy learning can be seen functioning in day-to-day operation. The literacy skills of the farmers are maintained by their repeated use in reading loan papers, keeping records, signing loan and other papers, and while participating in social and educational activities. As part of continuing education, the farmers learn new farming techniques, how to increase production, improve their health and sanitation, and related activities.

3.2 Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRD)

The first IRD programme was initiated in 1976/77 in the Nuwakot and Rasuwa districts of Nepal. Since then IRD programmes have been extended to the Koshi, Sagarmantha, Rapti, Mahakali, Karnali and Bheri zones.

The main objectives of the IRD programmes are to increase agricultural productivity, expand livestock-raising activities, and prevent deforestation and land erosion. At the same time, in order to improve the quality of rural life, the IRD programmes provide health and educational facilities, drinking water, and help in the construction of roads and the development of cottage industries. At the level of implementation, the IRD projects provide loans and farm implements to the farmers and educate the rural population in new techniques of agriculture, livestock raising and soil conservation. In some cases, health posts and educational facilities are increased to the required number. In other cases small hydro-electric plants are installed. Thus a variety of activities most suitable to rural conditions are undertaken, and local participation is encouraged by most of the IRD projects.

A similar programme, Education for Rural Development (ERD), was started in 1981 in the Seti zone. The main objective of the ERD was to reduce the waste of resources and to make primary and adult education more effective. The project has visualized the primary school teacher as an agent of change for rural development and plans to introduce changes in the educational system for immediate impact on rural living. The major programme components are: the development of a new supervision and implementation process, as well as modifications in the primary and adult education system, education for women, and teacher training. All these programmes have common themes, such as improved hygiene and sanitation, improved nutrition, afforestation, higher income, increased participation in development, and improved health.

All IRD and ERD projects in Nepal are recent developments seeking to improve the general quality of life of the rural people by providing them with various material resources, modern techniques and training in education and health. Adult education and training is an integral component of these programmes, which are designed to reach the local people and to change their attitudes. Since these programmes are long-term, the rural population begins with literacy learning, applies it in real-life situations,

and continues to apply literacy after termination of the formal programmes. In this sense, the IRD and ERD projects can be seen as strategies for post-literacy and continuing education.

3.3 Radio Education

For a mountainous country like Nepal, one of the most promising means of reaching the masses would seem to be through radio broadcasting. Studies have shown that the radio is used as a vital communications device by a majority of the people. It is estimated that Radio Nepal, the only national radio system, currently serves almost 85 per cent of the geographical area and 95 per cent of the population.

Two types of educational programmes are broadcast by Radio Nepal. One is the nonformal mass-education programme designed to inform people about better techniques of agriculture, health, family planning, child care, co-operatives, banking promotion, and women's programmes. The main purpose of these programmes is to educate the masses about the problems and issues that a person faces in everyday life and to teach them better techniques for coping with these problems. The second type of educational programme, called the Radio Education Teacher Training Project, aims at improving the quality of primary school education through the in-service training of untrained teachers by co-ordinating instruction by radio and making use of self-instruction materials. In the long term the Radio Education Programme aims to build up the basic facilities and staff to organise the production of a number of radio programmes in a variety of subject matter areas for many different audiences of differing ages and interests.

The nonformal education programmes last 15 to 30 minutes and are generally broadcast in the mornings and evenings. The Radio Education Teacher Training Programme is broadcast Sunday through Friday from 5.30 - 6.30 p.m. The broadcasting programme for 1982/83 was directed at a group of 2,500 in-service primary school teachers.

These activities show that there is a great potential for making radio a means of educating neo-literates in such areas as health, agriculture, family planning, child care, and sanitation. This strategy of post-literacy and continuing education, however, will require a great deal of attention by the planners, administrators and politicians if it is to become

a viable means for retaining and applying the literacy skills of the neo-literates.

3.4 Functional Literacy Programme (FLP)

Since 1978 a functional literacy programme under the Ministry of Education and Culture has been teaching literacy and numeracy through useful activities, as well as training adults in the profession or occupation they are involved in with a view to increasing their efficiency.

In the past, progress in functional literacy has been slow. However, between 1980 and 1985 the Ministry of Education and Culture plans to open about 40,000 adult education centres, where 1,400,000 adults will be taught both literacy and functional skills. The Ministry also plans to open 620 reading centres in appropriate locations to encourage and facilitate the retention of literacy.

Each functional adult education programme is organised in a centre for a period of six months for a group of about 40 adults. The first four months are generally devoted to making them literate, and the next two months teaching them certain functional skills. This gives the neo-literates an opportunity to apply their newly-acquired literacy by learning some skills that they can immediately apply in their daily lives.

3.5 Occupational Training Programmes (OTP)

At the secondary school level vocational education has been integrated for all the secondary students. For the out-of-school adolescents and adults, however, there are two types of programmes - one organised by the technical schools and the other offered by the Skill Training Centres.

Technical-School Programme

One of the problems that the country is facing today is the short supply of adequately trained craftsmen and skilled manpower for the local market. The National Education Committee has therefore developed the Technical School Scheme which produces basic-level technicians with three years of classroom training plus one year of on-the-job training. Currently, six such schools at different levels of operation are offering or

planning to offer courses in general mechanics, electricity, plumbing, building, health care, agriculture, and car mechanics. Out-of-school adolescents aged 13 and above with at least 5 years of elementary education are enrolled in these courses. Courses of shorter duration are offered in response to the needs and at the request of local industrial and commercial agencies. All these efforts of continuing education are expected to promote employment among the out-of-school youth in the rural areas.

Skill-Training Programmes

The other types of skill-oriented manpower training programmes are organised by the Department of Cottage Industries, the Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare, the Ministry of Agriculture, and the Ministry of Panchayat and Local Development. The target group for such training includes all the out-of-school adolescents and adults who need skills in order to improve their economic condition and the general quality of their life, and who have little or no education. The main objective of these skill training programmes is to promote the use of the labour force in productive activities by providing industrial, vocational and apprenticeship training. During the Fifth Plan (1975-80) period, over 5,200 people were provided with basic-level skill training in the areas of, for example, hairdressing, carpentry, masonry, soil cutting, type-setting, bidi making, weaving, stone-breaking, fitting and welding.

Both of the above technical and skill training programmes are helpful in some ways in retaining the literacy skills of the neo-literates, since the latter apply them repeatedly whilst learning their specialist skills. In addition, these programmes present some good examples of the continuing education of the neo-literates.

3.6 Textual and Supplementary Reading Materials

Reading materials specifically designed to help neo-literates retain literacy have not yet been prepared in Nepal. Even reading centres and libraries are rare in rural areas, where supplementary reading materials might be stored for the new readers. However, in a broader sense, two types of printed materials can be mentioned which are being used by the neo-literates. One type is that used in the functional adult education classes. The second type includes all kinds of printed materials that the neo-literates happen to find incidentally in

their working life situation. Most such materials are produced and distributed by the Extension Division of the Ministry of Agriculture, by the Family Planning and Maternal Child Care Project, the Women's Training Centre, the Agriculture Development Bank, the Labour Department, and by related agencies.

The first type of materials has been designed for neo-literates in order to teach them additional skills in the areas of agriculture, health and sanitation, and other life-related activities. The second type of materials has been designed to disseminate information concerning various productive, social and population-related activities. However, there is not sufficient evidence to determine the extent to which these materials are actually read by the neo-literates to retain their literacy and to improve their living conditions.

4. IN-DEPTH STUDY OF SELECTED TECHNIQUES AND PROGRAMMES

4.1 Small Farmer Development Programme (SFDP)

Over 90 per cent of the people in Nepal earn their livelihood from agriculture, which contributes 65.3 per cent of the gross domestic product and provides 80 per cent of export earnings. It is estimated that more than 75 per cent of the farmers fall into the category of small farmers, who hold less than one hectare of land. Since these small farmers have not so far benefited from government development measures, special efforts have become necessary to assist them.

Major Objectives

The main goal of the Small Farmer Development Programme (SFDP) is to help engage the unutilised labour, skill and resources of the small farmers in production in a planned way so as to raise their standard of living and improve their quality of life. In order to achieve these objectives the SFDP is organised on the following premises:

- organisation of small farmers groups at the village level;
- formulation of group plans;
- implementation of income-raising and other social programmes;
- implementation of SFDP in an integrated way in close co-ordination with the related agencies;
- action-based research.

Target Population

The target population in its broader sense includes all of the small farmers of Nepal. For practical purposes, a small farmer has been defined as one who depends on the profession of agriculture and cottage industries at the village level, whose land holding is small, or who is a tenant, share cropper, or landless labourer, as well as fishermen, labourers engaged in rural cottage industries, and other skilled labourers - all whose annual income does not exceed Rs. 950 per annum (ADB,

1982). According to this definition, a large number of Nepali population can be classified as small farmers, since a majority of them are poor, work as labourers, and have a small land holding.

Identification of Small Farmers

Since one of the premises of SFDP is action-based research, the selection of small farmers begins with an area survey of panchayats, followed by the recommendation of the District Co-ordination Committee and final approval of the project area by the Head Office of the Agricultural Development Bank (ADB). Once the project area has been decided on, preliminary household surveys are conducted, and the information is analysed in order to determine the total number of small farmers whose annual income does not exceed Rs. 950. These small farmers are then organised into groups and a detailed household survey is conducted in order to determine their actual socio-economic status.

SFDP Groups and Their Activities

Important elements of the SFDP are the formation of a group and the provision for various inputs and services on a group basis. So far 786 groups of similar income have been formed into 30 projects, and the total membership comes to 7,974 small farmers (1980/81 figures). The group size varies from 5 to 25 members. However, most functional groups have a membership of 12 to 15 persons. In addition, women's groups have been organised and are involved in activities such as weaving, handicrafts and sewing.

At the initial stage, in each of the SFDP projects, ADB assigns a full-time group organiser who is responsible for organising small farmers into groups and preparing the group plan and motivating the farmers to achieve the objectives of SFDP. The SFDP groups are formed on the basis of some ethic origin, similar level of income, or common interest. The group organiser works as a banker and extension agent, and acts as a link between the small farmers and the various government agencies. In addition, the group organiser is responsible for maintaining records, conducting group meetings, implementing various rural development activities, and conducting research as required by the SFDP project.

The group leader, who is generally a man or woman of great integrity, is nominated by each group. Leadership is on a rotation basis with each person assuming the leadership at some stage. The leader resigns when he or she feels this is in the interest of the group. The group leader organises meetings on a regular basis to deal with the concerns of the SFDP group. In the meetings the group discusses the priorities of its members, evaluates loan applications, makes recommendations about the ceiling of the loans, and plans income-raising and social activities. The group organiser often attends such group meetings.

The group leader listens to the others' points of view, seeks the participation of each and every member in group discussion, and encourages them to overcome their differences. On behalf of the group he borrows money for the productive activities agreed upon, helps in the investment, and ensures punctual repayment. The group meetings create an environment of learning for both the illiterates and neo-literates.

Major Activities

From the beginning, the Agricultural Development Bank of Nepal has provided overall leadership and various types of management and credit-related support to the small farmers development projects. Under the SFDP programme the farmers are provided with various types of financial, income-generating, agricultural and social service inputs in a package form. Most of their activities are implemented by the SFDP groups organised at the village level under a pre-formulated group plan and in close co-ordination with the Agricultural Development Bank, the Ministry of Agriculture, the Ministry of Education, the Ministry of Health, and other agencies. Some of the major activities undertaken by the SFDP are:

- *Income-generating activities*: These include cereal and cash crop production, livestock and horticulture development, farm mechanization and irrigation, farm produce marketing, and cottage and rural industry.

- *Group savings*: According to the regulations of the SFDP, all the small farmers have to deposit a certain part of their income in their group saving fund. This fund is for emergency purposes such as medical expenses, funeral ceremonies, etc.; it can also be for providing the small farmers with further

loans to meet certain production costs. The total group savings collected in 22 SFDPs came to Rs. 280,048 (1980/81 figures).

- *Social service activities*: In order to support the economic activities of the small farmers, various social service activities have been introduced in the SFDP area. These include sanitation, health and nutrition improvement, population education, women's development programmes, elimination of detrimental social practices, adult education including functional literacy, maternal welfare and child care, compost pits and latrine construction, and the distribution of vegetable seeds.

- *Community activities*: The community activities designed and implemented under SFDP included the following: the construction of new irrigation canals and the maintenance of the existing canals; the construction and maintenance of local roads, bridges and culverts, school buildings and community meeting halls; the construction of community storage facilities; the construction and maintenance of drinking-water systems; the installation and management of agro-processing units and community bio-gas plants; and community wood lot and fodder management programmes.

SFDP Status (1975-1981)

The SFDP began in 1975/76 with two experimental projects in separate locations. Its success and the increasing demand on the part of the farmers led the Agricultural Development Bank (ADB) to expand these programmes to 54 locations in 41 districts.

In the early stage of programme implementation, the Food and Agriculture Organisation (FAO) and ADB of Nepal were involved together in the financial aspects of administration and the credit programme. Under this programme the small farmers were provided right from the beginning with the necessary materials and were given help in expanding social service activities. However, in recent years the credit component has become the responsibility of the ADB, and the social services activities have been provided by the line agencies of the government.

- *Loan investment and repayment*: The small farmers are given loans for various agricultural and economic activities. According to July 1981 figures, these loans had then reached a total of Rs. 16,263,000. The total loans repaid amounted to Rs. 6,060,000. Loans are provided on a short-, medium- and long-term basis, depending on the purpose and type of activity. All the loans are provided on the basis of joint liability. The group itself is considered as collateral and the group members are made responsible jointly and individually for the non-repayment of loans by any member of their group.

- *Population education programme*: In Nepal the annual growth rate of population has been estimated to be 2.7 per cent, whereas the food production is increasing by only 2 per cent. Thus the gap between these two components has been widening every year. The estimated life expectancy is about 46 years. At the present growth rate the population will double in the next 26 years. Hence a population education programme was introduced in SFDP, so that the small farmers would become aware of the negative consequences of large families. Population education attempts to convey to the farmers the relationship of family size to food production, consumption, nutrition, health care, education, environment, land fragmentation, etc. Various audio-visual aids, such as radio, cassettes, drama, stories, songs, posters, pamphlets, flip-charts and flash-cards are used to communicate the message to the farmers. In 1981 population education programmes were introduced in eight different project locations.

- *Women's development programme*: The women of rural Nepal contribute to the economic and household activities of a family by participating in agricultural production, livestock rearing, cottage industry, child care, health education, truck farming, and other activities. In view of these contributions, SFDP women groups have been organised into various projects. These groups are provided loans by the ADB to undertake various economic activities, such as weaving, handicrafts, rice shelling, knitting, sewing, and crop productions.

- *Social and community development programmes*: The small farmers under the SFDP have been involved in over a dozen activities to improve the social and community life by education, sanitation and environment-related activities. Some of the notable achievements in this area as presented in the ADB Report (1982) were the following:

  - During the years 1975-1981 a total of 164 groups had participated in adult education programmes, and as a result of this participation about 1,950 farmers had received adult education.

  - Up to 1981, a total of 1,995 members of 244 groups were involved in 6,131 sanitation programmes. Most of these programmes were completed on time.

  - During 1975-1981 a total of 1,527 members of 202 groups contributed their labour in the construction of 1,538 latrines.

  - Over a thousand compost pits were constructed in various rural locations by involving 1,017 members of 149 groups.

  - Similarly, 213 members of 44 groups participated in 1,889 afforestation activities.

  - During 1975-1981 a total of 499 members of 51 groups constructed 24 public godowns and meeting houses for the use of the groups.

  Similar achievements were noted in the areas of family planning, food and nutrition, road construction and maintenance, bridge construction and maintenance, veterinary services, plants and seeds distribution, and forest and fruit plants distribution. From the above activities it can be seen that SFDP has been a centre for learning new technology, a place of social interaction, and a method of enriching the quality of life of the small farmers.

- *Training for skills*: The farmers need skills to conduct certain activities and to increase their awareness. For this reason, special provision is made for imparting various types of training to small farmers

in the skills of group concepts, improved agricultural and livestock production techniques, public health, family planning, cottage and rural industries, bee-keeping and related activities. During the years 1975-1981 a total of 4,283 small farmers were provided some kind of skill training in the areas of personal, social and economic development.

- *Sources of financial support*: As stated earlier, the total amount of loan investment in the SFDP had reached Rs. 16,263,000 in 1981. Most of this loan was provided by the ADB of Nepal. In addition to ADB's contribution, the SFDP was supported by various international agencies, e.g., the Food and Agriculture Organisation (FAO), the International Fund for Agricultural Development, the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), the United Nations Fund for Population Activities (UNFPA), the United States Agency for International Development (USAID), and Her Britannic Majesty's Government.

Evaluation

The SFDP aims at giving the small farmers skills and making them aware and socio-economically self-sufficient, so that they can actively participate in personal, social and community development. Evaluation studies by APROSC and FAO have shown that the income-generating activities and extension work in these projects have made the small farmers quite conscious of their potential. At the same time the evaluations noted that the small farmers under the SFDP have been able to increase their income considerably.

The small farmers in the SFDP have ample opportunites for literacy learning, skill training, and for applying their new skills in social service and community development activities, which are seen as a vehicle to support and sustain the farmers' socio-economic development in the long run. This particular feature of SFDP distinguishes it from other programmes and makes it special because it includes provision for learning followed by a change in attitudes which leads to a greater demand for more opportunities for such learning. In brief, post-literacy and continuing education appear to be operating as an essential component of SFDP to provide overall support to the total programme implementation.

Integration with Education and Development

In addition to its chief aim of helping farmers to improve their socio-economic condition, the SFDP has demonstrated three kinds of integration at the functional level. The first kind of integration could be observed when a bank (i.e., ADB) and the Ministry of Education collaborated for a common purpose. This purpose was, of course, to raise the socio-economic life of the farmers. In ordinary circumstances it would be most unusual for a bank to collaborate with the Ministry of Education. However, SFDP happens to be a unique programme in which most of the financial and managerial inputs are provided by ADB, while the Ministry of Education provides its "Kota of Adult Literacy" with instructional materials and teacher training to make the farmers literate. (For more detailed discussion, see the section on Functional Literacy.) This is one example of a new relationship which has been an outcome of the SFDP in Nepal.

A second level of integration can be seen between farm and education. This again is unique in a traditional society where education has always been formal and a matter of concern for the school system rather than for a group of farmers. However, SFDP has well demonstrated that education and learning can take place not only in an academic environment but also in a farming situation to help improve the general socio-economic condition of the rural farmers.

Finally, a third level of integration can be observed in the efforts to educate the farmers for a larger process of economic development. As seen in the previous pages, the SFDP places great emphasis on making the farmers literate and on providing skill training. Similarly, efforts are also made to create a situation where the farmers can use these new skills for changing their traditional attitudes and behaviour, so that economic production will increase. In addition, the farmers are becoming increasingly aware of their frequent exploitation by local bankers. Now they have learnt how to prevent such situations occurring while still continuing to improve their socio-economic life.

The SFDP, therefore, presents a unique strategy in which education merges with a bank and farms to improve the overall socio-economic status of the small farmers. Literacy, post-literacy and continuing education seem to be instrumental in helping to achieve the goals of increasing production, and in improving the personal, social and community life of the farmers.

Implications for Post-Literacy and Continuing Education

The overall aim of post-literacy and continuing education is to create a learning environment that will help in the retention of literacy skills, the continuation of learning beyond literacy skills, and the application of learning for the personal, social and vocational development of an individual. An analysis of the SFDP programme in Nepal reveals that this programme can be taken as a model for post-literacy and continuing education. The SFDP meets most of the criteria of a model, since it is based on the principles of education and training, developing the consciousness of the farmers, and changing their attitudes and behaviour. The analysis presented below will show that the SFDP has created a learning environment where retention, continuation and application have been part of its daily operation.

- *Retention of literacy:* Under the SFDP the small farmers are provided education for literacy and also functional literacy. These are the regular programmes of the Ministry of Education and Culture (MOEC), organised under the supervision of the SFDP group organiser with inputs such as teacher training, pay for the facilitator, and instructional materials provided by the MOEC. The farmers receive a total of ten months training in literacy and functional skills. These literacy skills of the neo-literates are repeatedly practised while participating in the daily activities of the SFDP programme. The farmers have to read the loan papers, sign their names and write addresses, count the amount of loan, and keep track of instalments to return the loan. In the group meetings minutes are written, read by the members and signed. ADB provides pamphlets about bio-gas, improved cooking stoves and multi-purpose water turbines for the farmers to read and refer to in their daily lives. Those who are responsible for keeping records get ample opportunities to practise their reading, writing and numeracy skills. Similarly, in all kinds of skill training programmes, as described earlier, the farmers have to participate in reading the printed pamphlets, posters, flip-charts and related materials.

- *Continuation of learning beyond literacy:* The small farmers in SFDP are provided skill training in the areas of group concept, improved agricultural and livestock production techniques, public health,

cottage and rural industries, family life and child care, and in other fields of rural life. Although this is not a second ladder of education, as found in formal education, it is definitely a nonformal programme of continuing education in which the farmers get a chance to develop new skills. In fact this is the kind of life-oriented education that is urgently needed for improving the general quality of life of the rural farmers. However, the young school dropouts who are now members of SFDP can either join the regular formal schools to upgrade their basic education or can join various short-term skill training programmes offered by the Women's Training Centre, the Cottage Industries, the Ministry of Local Development, and the Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare. Some of these skill training programmes will be discussed in detail in the section on Occupational Training Programmes.

- *Application of learning*: SFDP is a practical laboratory where all the literacy skills and other types of vocational and functional skills are regularly applied by the small farmers to enrich their personal, social, vocational and family life. The literacy skills are used in keeping updated records on all aspects of agricultural practices which lead to more systematic farming methods and improved production. Population education is intended to generate a desire for small families and improve child care and family life. Similarly, new skills in cottage and rural industries should help to increase income. Thus, all the skills acquired in literacy or for an occupation under SFDP have some kind of application in the functioning of group activity, community and family life, vocational activity, and related aspects of the farmer's life, which eventually lead to the personal, social and vocational development of the small farmer.

In conclusion it can be said that the SFDP is attempting to raise the consciousness of the farmers through literacy teaching, skill training, and social activities, so that they will gradually free themselves from ignorance, economic helplessness, and social injustice. In addition, the SFDP has presented an example of practical strategy for post-literacy and continuing education of the neo-literates in the perspective of lifelong education.

4.2 Functional Literacy Programme (FLP)

In recent years, for a functionally literate person the concept of literacy has been extended to cover the knowledge of work skills along with the skills of the 3 R's. The work-oriented concept emphasizes the importance of undertaking an intensive and work-centred approach to literacy programmes and by linking these approaches to development activities at the community level. In the context of these developments, the National Education System Plan (NESP) of 1971-76 visualized literacy programmes as an important factor in promoting an all-round development of the illiterate adults of Nepal and emphasized functional adult education programmes as a strategy for the majority of illiterate adults. Since 1972, in accordance with the directives of NESP, functional literacy has been implemented in various parts of the country.

Objectives

The objectives have been

- to enable illiterate adults to master simple numerical skills along with reading and writing;
- to train adults in the vocation they are involved in and thereby increase their efficiency;
- to teach them about agricutural practises, cleanliness, sanitation, health care, and the political system;
- to make them aware of population growth and its consequences.

Thus, a functionally literate person is one who can read and write elementary words, sentences and passages in Nepali, is able to solve simple arithmetical problems and put into practice the key skills and know-how he has been made familiar with regarding agriculture, health, sanitation, family planning, and social welfare.

Target Population

The functional literacy programme is made available to adults between 15 and 45 years old who have not attended formal school. In some cases the programme also covers children who,

for personal and family reasons, are unable to join formal schools. In addition, it includes the primary school dropouts who have partially or completely forgotten their literacy skills. Presently, efforts are also being made to include more women and girls in the functional literacy programme, so that women's participation in socio-economic life in general will increase.

Programme Outline

The functional literacy approach provides a medium through which other useful knowledge and skills are transmitted to the adult learners. Thus, in the course of learning the 3 R's women also learn new techniques of child care, health and nutrition. A farmer learns about new seeds, crop rotation, the use of chemical fertilizer, etc., and a factory worker learns about industrial safety, work procedures, etc. Functional literacy programmes have been developed in Nepal on the basis of these conceptual orientations. Thus, the entire approach to literacy and teaching is different from the traditional ways.

In an FLP, the first four months are spent on teaching literacy skills, and the next two months on functional skills related to agriculture, health, family planning, etc. In these learning exercises practical work experiences are greatly emphasized. Local experts belonging to the Health Department, the Ministry of Agriculture, or a secondary vocational school are invited to teach functional aspects of the programme. Such experts receive a fair amount of monetary incentive from the District Education Offices.

The location of FLP centres is decided on the basis of what is convenient for the learners and in consultation with local leaders and people with academic training. The FL classes might be organised in a local school building, community building, guest house, or even in a private home. The times for classes are also decided in consultation with the learners. Every effort is made not to disturb the daily routine of the learners.

Despite this flexibility with regard to the location and timing of FL classes, a definite provision is made to run the classes six days a week, with about two hours a day, usually for six months. In any event, at least twelve hours a week must be devoted to the FL classes. 40 to 45 illiterate adults are enrolled in each adult education centre. Since all the decisions

are made jointly in a group situation by learners and facilitators, the learning environment remains flexible and nonformal. The facilitators are encouraged to use participatory methods of learning, since the majority of the adults do not wish to be treated as school children.

Curriculum and Textual Materials

A set of text materials and teacher's guides has been developed on the basis of practical experience and the observations made by experts in the fields of health, agriculture, sanitation, etc. These materials are used according to the need of the adult learners. The following courses are listed in the manual of the adult education programme of the Ministry of Education and Culture (MOEC), but are used on the basis of local requirements:

Literacy training

- Adult Education for Beginners
- Mathematics

Functional literacy

- Agricultural Education
- Health Education
- Home Science
- Panchayat (civic education)
- Family Planning and Child Care
- Some Occupational Training

The functional aspect of the literacy programme is flexible and is offered according to the needs of the local adults. However, practicals are conducted for all functional courses.

Teacher's guides have been prepared for teaching literacy and numeracy to adults. All the text materials, teacher's guides, and supplementary materials are in Nepali. Under the supervision of the Adult Education Division of MOEC, these materials are prepared by experts on adult education, supervisors

and adult educators. In some cases workshops are also organised to produce literacy materials.

In addition to text materials the adult learners are provided with a set of about 28 types of supplementary reading materials. The topics include: compost fertilizer; plantation; how to use good fertilizer; how to increase paddy production; pineapple farming; tomato gardening; common causes of plant diseases; first aid; cleanliness of the mother and child; cleaning your house and the neighbourhood; pit latrines, dirty water and diseases; banana plantation; poultry; livestock; lamb-raising; fisheries; simple home science; and Panchayat (civics).

These supplementary reading materials are the major source of post-literacy material for the neo-literates. The supplementary booklets are written in simple language so that the literate adults can understand them easily. Most of the concepts and procedures in these materials have been simplified so that the adults can understand and apply them under local conditions.

Administration and Management

Within the MOEC, the Division of Adult and Nonformal Education is headed by an undersecretary, and under him there are adult education co-ordinators, supervisors, specialists and related administrative personnel. However, the Secretary of Education is the chief executive head responsible for the overall planning, directing and implementation of all the programmes.

The channel of communication runs from the Division of Adult and Nonformal Education to the District Education Offices (of which there are 75) in the form of circulation of the policies, plans and directives. The District Education Offices, being the district-level agencies of the MOEC, implement the functional literacy programmes in their respective districts with the help of co-ordinators, field supervisors, instructors and facilitators.

A detailed survey is conducted in each district to determine the feasibility of opening an adult education centre and to identify local needs so that a realistic decision can be made about the course content. In such a survey supervisors, co-ordinators, facilitators, local intellectuals and the perspective learners are involved. Once a decision has been made about the centre, the major responsibility for implementation rests on the District Education Office.

The Adult Education Co-ordination Committee at the central level is comprised of representatives from various ministries and departments. It decides on policy and gives directives to the Division of Adult and Nonformal Education. At the district level the District Education Committee provides guidelines to the District Education Officer (DEO) for the implementation of functional literacy programmes. The DEO also organises conferences and meetings of the different units related to functional literacy programmes.

Various governmental and nongovernmental agencies that are involved in the implementation of functional literacy programmes include the Agricultural Development Bank (through the Small Farmers Development Programme), local Panchayats, Women's Organisations, Youth Activity Co-ordination Committees, Co-operatives, Community Service Co-ordination Committees, and related agencies. The Ministry of Education and Culture provides instruction materials and financial resources to the above agencies to cover the costs of instructors and vocational experts.

Adult Educators

After deciding to open an adult education centre the supervisor selects the motivators (adult educators) from among local teachers or other educated individuals. The persons selected should:

- be inclined to social and community service;
- possess knowledge and skill in agriculture, health and related areas;
- be known to and aware of the problems of local people;
- show respect towards adults learners.

The instructors or adult educators are given short and intensive training. In this the emphasis is laid on how to prepare teaching materials, special methods of teaching adults, motivation, and people's participation in community activities. The instructors receive monthly payment for 6 months and also some additional money for stationery and miscellaneous expenses.

Geographical Scope

During 1977/78 the experimental project of functional literacy was conducted in two villages of Bhaktapur District near Kathmandu. Since then the FL programme has been expanded to over 52 districts, where about 400 adult education centres were started in 1979/80. The adult education programmes sponsored by the Ministry of Education and Culture extend to 55 districts of the country and aimed at covering 150,000 adults in the fiscal year 1982/83.

Examinations

In the literacy part each lesson has an evaluation component that the instructor is supposed to follow after teaching that particular lesson. In the case of functional education, "practicals" are conducted, where the instructor has the opportunity to observe behavioural change. In addition, the supervisors are supposed to conduct tests and visit the functional literacy programmes in order to determine the effectiveness of the programme. However, the FLP needs some improved techniques of evaluation in order to determine the impact of the instruction on the behaviour of the adults.

Financial Resources

Most of the financial resources required to run an adult education centre are borne by His Majesty's Government central budget through the Ministry of Education and Culture. For each centre financial assistance is provided at the following rates:

- Each teacher receives Rs. 100 per month.
- Each centre is given Rs. 100 per month for stationery and miscellaneous expenses.
- Each health or agricultural expert receives Rs. 15 for teaching a class, but the total amount does not exceed Rs. 300.

A teacher in each centre is responsible for keeping all the financial records.

The above rates of financial assistance to each centre vary according to the nature of the organisation running the FL programme. For example, FL programmes organised by the non-

governmental organisations and voluntary organisations receive less assistance since they are supposed to provide voluntary services to the community.

Evaluation

In 1980, the Centre for Educational Research, Innovation and Development (CERID) conducted an evaluative study of the functional literacy programme being administered in 26 districts by the Ministry of Education and Culture. The purpose was to determine what the learners had achieved and to see if they were assimilating the functional aspect. The findings revealed that 89.04 per cent of the adults claimed to have learnt concepts on social reform in their literacy classes. Similarly, those who did well in the 3 R's also fared well in acquiring knowledge and skills related to functional education. The study noted that of the social reform concept taught in a class the need for participation in village development programmes and for providing education equally to girls as to boys seemed to be thoroughly realised by a majority (79.3 per cent) of the participants. In a similar manner 91.7 per cent of the adults interviewed were found to have learnt health concepts, such as keeping one's home surroundings clean, making the water safe for drinking, building a pit latrine, treatment of minor diseases, personal hygiene and cleanliness, making nutritious baby-food, and the care of babies. Similar observations were reported in the areas of agriculture and family planning. On the basis of these findings the study made the following recommendations:

- Since only a little over half of the adults were found to be literate, the literacy programme needed to be conducted more effectively and more emphasis on practical aspects and proper training of the facilitators was required.

- The adults were found to be relatively weak in writing and arithmetic.

- Instructional methods in the areas of discussion and participation needed improvement. More local experts should be involved in teaching functional education.

- Instructional materials must be made available on time.

- A variety of reading materials and supplementary readers should be made available so that the literate adults do not lapse back into illiteracy. Similarly, functional programmes should be conducted occasionally for the neo-literates.

- Regular supervision is required.

These observations amply show that the implementation of FLP has been neither entirely smooth nor free from constraints. Hence, efforts are needed on the part of the authorities towards making FLP more effective.

In addition, it should be noted that the FL programmes provide an opportunity for literacy as well as for post-literacy and continuing education. After the literacy training of four months the neo-literates get an opportunity to read the supplementary materials mentioned above. At the same time, since they continue their functional or vocational training for the next two months, the neo-literates have an opportunity not only to retain their literacy skills, but also to continue their learning and to apply it in practical situations. It is in this context that FLP has been seen as a strategy for both literacy and post-literacy and continuing education of the neo-literates in the context of lifelong education.

4.3 Occupational Training Programmes

All types of organised occupational and skill training programmes (2) are fairly new in Nepal. The oldest programme that can be traced is the technical school of 1942. Otherwise most of the occupational training centres were established during the 1950s and later - in the areas of health, cottage industry, agriculture, forestry and related fields. Most of these programmes were gradually developed as an integral part of the formal school system at the secondary and tertiary levels. In the 1960s and 1970s vocational education was introduced at the secondary level and more proficient training was offered at the post-secondary level.

In addition to these formal programmes, a host of skill training programmes have been a regular function of various governmental ministries and departments in their efforts to develop the skilled manpower required by their projects. During the 1960s and 1970s, efforts were made in this direction by the

Department of Cottage Industries, the Ministry of Panchayat and Local Development, and the Department of Labour. Similar programmes were organised by the private sector through apprenticeship schemes, and by international agencies such as the United Mission and the United Nations Fund for Population Activities. The programmes and activities of these agencies generally catered to the out-of-school population with little or no education.

In 1981 the Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare was established, under which the Department of Labour is now functioning. The Department's work includes the promotion of employment, provision of training for the labour force, and implementation of labour law. The present discussion is concerned only with the skills training programmes.

Types of Programmes

Until 1979 the Department of Labour was engaged in organising an apprenticeship programme and a population education programme for industrial workers. More recently the Department has been engaged in carrying out skill training programmes through the following centres:

- *Labour Supply Centres*: Three Labour Supply Centres (LSC) were established in Hetauda (1975), Nepalganj (1976) and Butwal (1977), with the following objectives:

  - to collect and disseminate labour market information;

  - to train unskilled labourers in basic skills, and to place them in employment;

  - to function as an employment exchange service.

  In order to carry out these objectives, the centres collect data about the number of workers, skill levels, wage rates, employment needs, etc. of the rural areas. They organise basic skill training programmes as demanded by projects and industries. In addition, the LSC encourages the Nepali contractors to employ indigenous labour, maintain a record of workers trained in projects, and facilitate their involvement in other projects.

The LSC offers training in a variety of the skills needed to perform effectively in a construction project and some elementary work in printing, weaving, and making articles for local consumption. The training aims at meeting some semi-skilled labour needs of local industry and the building trade. The areas of skill training, duration and timing of training are as follows:

Skill Areas	Duration	Dates
Carpentry	6 months	Aug. to Jan. Jan. to June
Masonry	4 months	Aug. to Nov. Oct. to Jan. Jan. to April
Soil Cutting	1 month	any time
Earth Levelling	1 month	any time
Gabiyan Knitting	1 month	any time
Type-setting	3 months	Nov. to Jan. April to June
Bidi Manufacture (Hand-rolled cigarettes)	3 months	Nov. to Jan. April to June
Making Bamboo Goods	1 month	any time
Weaving	3 months	Aug. to Oct. Nov. to Jan. Feb. to April
General Mechanics	1 year	
Tyre Retreading	3 months	Aug. to Oct.
Brick Making	1 month	
Boiler Operating	2 months	(not decided)
Workshop Mechanics	3 months	(not decided)

During the Fifth Plan Period (1975-80) the three LSC provided training to the following numbers of people in various skills:

Skill Areas	LSC, Hetauda	LSC, Nepalganj	LSC, Butwal
Carpentry	217	154	30
Masonry	215	165	20
Soil Cutting	1,766	552	231
Knitting	-	-	75
Stone Breaking	197	-	30
Type-setting	17	-	25
Bidi Manufacture	-	177	-
Brick Making	352	226	-
Others (Short-Term)	89	275	100
Totals:	1,853	1,549	511

Source: *Labour Administration* (in Nepali). Hetauda: Labour Supply Centre, 1981.

In the fiscal year 1981/82 the training targets were doubled in all LSCs for carpentry, masonry, brick-making and type-setting. Five more centres are being established in five different locations of the country, where short-term skill training will be provided in the beginning, to be followed by long-term courses in later years.

The trainees are generally recruited by the agents of the centre. Most of the trainees come from rural areas, and some of them are barely literate. The age range of the trainees enrolled in the programmes is from 14 to 30 years. The trainees receive subsistence allowances, but they have to travel to the centre from their places of residence.

The method of instruction is based on demonstration and practical work under the supervision of the instructors. The curriculum has set aside 80 per cent of the training hours for practical work and 20 per cent for theoretical instruction. In courses like carpentry, the texts used in school-level vocational education have been recommended. Curriculum and textual materials in several areas still remain to be developed.

Graduates of various mechanical and technical institutes are recruited to work as instructors since it is they who have the best training and practical experience in related vocations. Some experienced workers are also employed, depending on availability. However, the centres lack sufficient equipment and adequate physical facilities.

- *Vocational Training Centre (Biratnagar)*: In 1960 the Vocational Training Centre was established under the Department of Industry with the objective of training mechanics for the industries in Biratnagar. Individuals with lower secondary education (including dropouts) are recruited for the training. The training period is one year, and 20 persons can be enrolled at one time. The areas of skill training relate to fitting, welding, machine shop, sheet metal, and blacksmith work. During 1975-80 about 80 persons completed the training. There are eight instructors and seven administrative employees in the centre.

- *Hairdressing Training Centre (Kathmandu)*: Since the hairdressing trade in Kathmandu was being monopolised by expatriate professionals, the Hairdressing Centre was established in 1974 to reduce this dependency. The curriculum consists of supervised practical work with some basic instruction. The instructors are professional hairdressers. There are four instructors - two men and two women - plus two staff members to take care of the administrative work. Most of the trainees are literate men and women. The training programme for men's hairdressing lasts three months and that for women's hairdressing six months. In 1981/82, four groups of eight men and two groups of nine women were to receive training in hairdressing. During 1974-79, a total of 87 males and females were trained in hairdressing. In recent years the training has become more popular among the women, who after training get employment in the salons and beauty parlours of the big hotels in Kathmandu. During the Sixth Plan period (1980-85), a total of 250 men and women will be provided training in hairdressing.

General Features of the Skill Training Programmes

The skill training programmes are guided by the labour policy of the government, which encourages improvement in the quality of indigenous labour through skill training programmes. They aim to prepare youths and adults for employment in all sectors, both public and private. The training programmes take account of the needs of the industrial concerns. Some of the programmes are run in co-operation with employers, partly in order to utilize their equipment and experienced workers in training. The programmes are modest in size and are mainly aimed at meeting a small portion of the need for semi-skilled workers in urban and industrial areas.

Administration and Management

The Department of Labour is in charge of the administration and management of all three types of skill training centres. The Department assigns an officer-level project chief to run each of the centres.

The training activities of the centres are fully financed by the government. The budgetary allocations for the different centres for the fiscal year 1981/82 were as follows:

LSC, Butwal	Rs.	350,000
LSC, Hetauda	Rs.	414,000
LSC, Nepalganj	Rs.	362,000
Vocational Training Centre, Biratnagar	Rs.	148,000
Hairdressing Training Centre, Kathmandu	Rs.	217,000
Total:	Rs.	1,491,000

The technical supervision of the centres is conducted by the Employment Research and Development Centre (ERDC) under the Department of Labour. The ERDC conducts annual surveys of village panchayats to identify training needs and to elicit the help of the panchayat leaders in finding prospective trainees. The ERDC also sponsors the preparation of curriculum and text materials and carries out studies to evaluate the effectiveness of the instruction.

A Reflection on Past Programmes

During the latter part of the 1970s, the Department of Labour conducted an industrial training scheme based on apprenticeship for the training of semi-skilled craftsmen. An apprentice received practical training and related instruction in a particular trade for a predetermined period by working under the supervision of a skilled worker or a craftsman. The programme was voluntary, and 36 public and private firms participated. These firms included jute mills, match factories, a sugar factory, a plywood factory, an agricultural-implements factory, metalcraft workshops, etc. The training lasted from 3 to 18 months. The entry qualification was primary-level education and 18-35-years age range. During 1976-79, about 1,400 persons benefited from this training scheme. The Department of Labour has terminated this programme, yet many of the private firms are continuing to run apprenticeships on their own.

During 1976-80, with the help of the United Nations Fund for Population Activities (UNFPA), the Department of Labour organised population education programmes to make the youth and adults employed in the organised sector aware of the consequences of rapid population growth, and to encourage them to have fewer children. The programme consisted of holding seminars in population education for the workers, managers, and women. Between 1976 and 1979, 47 seminars and training programmes were held by the Department.

As a strategy for post-literacy and continuing education, it can be said that the population education programme seems to have helped in creating an awareness among the labourers, farmers and women about the population situation and the action that could be taken by them to limit the size of their families and so improve their standard of living. Similarly, the apprenticeships seem to have given the neo-literates an opportunity to continue their education in a most productive way.

Evaluation

Most of the programmes organised by these centres seem to be effective, since the dropout rate has been negligible and a majority of the graduates have been placed in appropriate employment. The centres have not been able to carry out follow-up programmes for the large number of people who have been trained. However, according to Manandhar (1982), for most of the courses "the trainees need to have a certain minimum level

of literacy and numeracy to be able to grasp the theoretical instruction and to read the simple instructional materials". It seems that the neo-literates would be the most suitable candidates for training in the skills offered by these centres. Since the Department of Labour is expanding its programmes during 1980-85, it can be assumed that many more neo-literates will have an opportunity to continue and both apply their literacy skills and learn some additional skills in a more practical work situation. It can be concluded that, with a little effort and understanding by the planners and administrators, all the programmes of the Department of Labour have a great potential for expansion towards a strategy of post-literacy and continuing education for neo-literates.

5. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

5.1 Summary

Nepal has been finding it extremely difficult to communicate the requirements and benefits of development to the over 75 per cent of the population which is illiterate. As a consequence of the high illiterate population, it has also been difficult to generate local participation for launching socio-economic development programmes. Thus, illiteracy has been one of the major constraints which have prevented the masses from merging into the mainstream of economic and social life of modern Nepal.

The problem of illiteracy was recognised by the planners as early as the 1950s. Since then efforts have been made to eliminate illiteracy by teaching the 3 R's and skills related to work habits and health. At present the adult education programmes are conducted in two ways, namely, literacy extension and functional literacy. Expansion of literacy classes is carried out basically by primary school teachers and some both paid and voluntary agents, including members of Women and Youth Organisations, Volunteer Groups, and multi-sectoral agencies and projects of the government.

Economic Development Plans have also emphasized the literacy programmes. The Sixth Plan (1980-85) stressed the expansion of functional literacy programmes, the establishment of a network of about 620 reading centres, and the organisation of functional literacy classes in integrated rural development project areas. Consequently, during 1980/81 there were 700 functional adult literacy centres operating in various parts of the country.

It has been estimated that so far over 800,000 adults have been made literate by the adult education programmes. Additionally, there are thousands of elementary school dropouts who have achieved literacy. But there has not been any systematic effort to help these people remain literate. However, some of the programmes and strategies that have effectively been contributing to post-literacy and continuing education are the following:

- Small Farmers Development Programme

- Integrated Rural Development Programme
- Radio Education
- Functional Literacy Programme
- Occupational Training Programme, which included the technical school programme and the skill training programmes
- Textual and Supplementary Reading Materials.

All of these programmes have been briefly described above. The three of the above techniques which were selected for more intensive study as strategies for post-literacy and continuing education were as follows:

Small Farmers Development Programme. The main objective of the SFDP is to help raise the socio-economic condition of the majority of the farmers by providing opportunities for income-generating activities and also by involving them in various educational and health-related programmes. An analysis of the SFDP programme indicated that in order to make the farmers economically well-off, income-generating programmes are important. However, equally important are literacy learning, as well as information about family planning, health and sanitation, and new agricultural technology. These supportive social service activities are conducted mainly in a nonformal group situation where ample learning takes place. These learning opportunities may be interpreted as good examples of post-literacy and continuing education of the neo-literate farmers, in the sense that the neo-literates have an opportunity for social interaction which helps them in the retention, continuation and application of their literacy skills. Thus, the SFDP seems to present a unique strategy in which literacy and education join up with the bank and the farm to improve the socio-economic condition of the farmers.

Functional Literacy Programmes. The main goal of the FLP is to enable participants to read and write elementary words, sentences and passages in Nepali, to enable them to solve simple arithmetical problems, and to put into practice the major skills and knowledge that they have been made familiar with concerning agriculture, health, sanitation, family planning and social welfare. Adults in the 15 to 45-year-old age group are provided a 6-month (12 hours a week) programme of FL classes, of which the first 4 months are devoted to literacy learning, and the next 2

months are spent on teaching functional skills in related occupations. Basically, FLP is a literacy programme. However, it can also be interpreted as a strategy for post-literacy and continuing education of the neo-literates in two ways: *One* is that after learning the 3 R's in the first four months of the FLP the adults get an opportunity to continue their learning in the form of acquiring functional skills. It also means that their literacy skills are retained and applied in a practical situation. *Secondly*, a variety of printed materials that have been produced to teach functional skills concerning health, agriculture, family planning, etc. provide a good source of reading materials for the neo-literates. It should be noted that these reading materials, at least partly, work as a means of retaining and continuing literacy skills of the neo-literates, which makes it a viable strategy of post-literacy and continuing education for the neo-literates.

Occupational Training Programmes. In Nepal, occupational training programmes are organised both within a formal school system and within a nonformal context by various ministries and departments. For this study the skill training programmes of the Department of Labour were selected. Through the Labour Supply Centres (LSC), the Hairdressing Training Centre, and the Vocational Training Centre, the Department provides basic skill training to workers in the areas of carpentry, masonry, typesetting, general mechanics, welding, hairdressing, and in similar basic skill areas. In addition, an industrial training scheme based on apprenticeship and population education programmes was established in the 1970s for the employees of the organised sector. During the Fifth Plan (1975-80) period, over 5,200 people benefited from these programmes. The skill training programmes help the neo-literates to retain and apply their literacy skills, since the learners get an opportunity to apply these skills frequently in their skill-learning situation. From an analysis of the programmes of the Department of Labour, it can be assumed that, since the Department is expanding its programmes in 1980-85, many more neo-literates will have greater opportunities to continue their education in a more practical work environment.

5.2 Problems and Constraints

The need for a programme of post-literacy and continuing education is as important as the programme of literacy learning itself, since without proper follow-up and after-care programmes

the neo-literates relapse into illiteracy and all the human and material investments made to make them literate are then wasted. A UNESCO advisor, (3) during his visit to adult education centres, made the following observation of this reversal process:

> "The new literate more often than not would rapidly lapse back into illiteracy. For example, in Nepal, I have met one adult participating in his third literacy course in ten years, and have also visited villages where literacy programmes were held a decade ago and now not one adult participant remains literate. This is not surprising, as any skill, if not used, is easily forgotten."

It can, therefore, be assumed that since most of the literates of the literacy classes have not used their literacy skills, they have relapsed into illiteracy. This assumption can be further supported by the fact that in most rural areas there is no informal or nonformal opportunity of any kind that would facilitate the practice or application of literacy skills. The distribution of newspapers, extension-literature and booklets is limited to urban areas and district headquarters. There are a few libraries and reading centres in cities, towns and in schools and colleges, but they cater to the educated class rather than to the literates of the literacy programmes. Furthermore, although multi-sectoral programmes such as SFDP, skill training, population education, functional literacy, integrated rural development, and radio education are under way, they are serving only a small sector of the total population, and most of them are still in the experimental stage. However, there seems to be a great potential in these multi-sectoral programmes for developing them as a strategy for post-literacy and continuing education, but that again is a matter of the future and is contingent upon various economic, political and organisational factors. Thus, it can be inferred that post-literacy opportunities for the majority of neo-literates in Nepal are in very short supply and, therefore, a large number of literates are lapsing back into illiteracy.

There are several factors contributing to the lack of opportunities for post-literacy and continuing education, the major one being the "slow socio-economic development" itself. However, some of the more specific problems and constraints appear to be the following:

- The literacy programme does not appear to be a priority of the planners, although targets were set to make over 100,000 people literate every year.

- There is a lack of awareness among planners, educators and administrators about the importance of post-literacy and continuing education in the retention, continuation and application of literacy skills of neo-literates in the context of lifelong education. For most of them, education means something formal, to be provided by a teacher in a structured classroom situation. It is difficult for them to consider education and learning to be something nonformal, flexible, and oriented to the needs of the learners. This is unfortunate but seems to be a natural outcome of the past efforts, which have mainly concentrated on expanding the school enrollments during the last three decades of educational development.

- In addition, there is a lack of suitable organisational structure and co-ordination mechanism. The Unit of Adult and Nonformal Education of the Ministry of Education and Culture seems to lack sufficient administrative and supervisory staff to organise an effective programme for the whole country. Recently, however, programmes have been initiated to organise a separate Directorate of Adult and Nonformal Education, (4) which certainly seems to be a most positive step forward for the literacy and post-literacy programmes.

- Then there are problems of not having sufficient trained - and dedicated - manpower. Similarly, the lack of a sufficient number of teachers with proper training is a problem.

- Because of the above factors and problems there is a scarcity of reading materials, shortage of instructional programmes and materials, lack of proper supervision, and so on.

The author, however, believes that the main problem is that of priority, which is a political decision rather than an administrative or economic one. Unless the government shows commitment to mass literacy and perceives it to be an integral part of all-round development, nothing much can be achieved, at least in our social context.

5.3 General Conclusions

This review of Nepal's literacy and post-literacy programmes has revealed that, in a spontaneous manner, several post-literacy and continuing education programmes have been organised by the Ministry of Education and Culture, and by other multi-sectoral agencies. Although the stated objectives of these programmes are farmers' development or occupational training, an in-depth analysis of their programmes and activities shows that in reality they also function as a strategy for post-literacy and continuing education of the neo-literates. Although most of these multi-sectoral programmes are experimental and still at the initial stage of their development, they present a unique situation in which education merges with farms, industries, small businesses, or even with banks. This creates a learning and earning environment where the adults participate with keen interest, apply their literacy skills, increase their vocational skills and knowledge, and hence, prove the strategy to be an ideal example of post-literacy and continuing education of neo-literates. This is the unique feature of these efforts that needs to be identified and developed further.

Finally, it should be made clear that, although these strategies provide a model for developing future programmes of post-literacy and continuing education, they are not adequate in quality or quantity to meet the current requirements of the large number of the neo-literate population. In other words, Nepal has yet to launch an organised programme of post-literacy and continuing education directed towards generating a learning environment on a large scale that would specifically meet the requirements for post-literacy and continuing education of the neo-literates in the broader perspective of lifelong education.

NOTES

(1) Most of the data about enrollment, teachers and schools were obtained from: Sharma, S.R. et.al. *Education Day Souvenir 1983*. Kathmandu: National Education Committee, 1983. pp. 7-15.

(2) One of the main sources of basic information for this section was: Manandhar, T.B. "A general survey of educational and skill training programmes of the Ministry of

Labour and Social Welfare". In *Meeting Educational Needs of Young People Without Schooling or With Incomplete Schooling*. Kathmandu: CERID. pp. 51-68.

(3) This was quoted by Dr. Nicholas Bennett, who worked as UNESCO Advisor in the Ministry of Education and Culture of Nepal during 1981-83. The source was: "Trends in non-formal education in developing countries". In *Nonformal Education in Nepal*. Kathmandu: CERID, 1982. p. 94.

(4) Since the author was involved in getting this proposal initiated at a meeting of the National Commission on Population, it has been recorded here to show that some positive efforts are under way.

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Chapter 5

THE DEVELOPMENT OF LEARNING STRATEGIES FOR POST-LITERACY AND CONTINUING EDUCATION OF NEO-LITERATES IN THE PERSPECTIVE OF LIFELONG EDUCATION IN THAILAND

by

N. Suntornpithug

INTRODUCTION

The need for more structured schooling in Thailand has developed as a result of increased contacts with the Western world and technological change. In the old days the pursuit of knowledge was a voluntary undertaking, both on the part of learners and teachers. But technological progress and various social factors have replaced this voluntary pursuit with a necessity perceived either by the individuals themselves or required by law (compulsory school education).

The importance of literacy in Thailand was recognised as early as 1932. However, it was not until 1943 that government efforts to make people literate were made. As a result, about 1.4 million people had become literate by 1947. Since the late 1960s, Thailand has reformed and expanded both literacy and post-literacy programmes, but the problem remains that those who have acquired knowledge and skills from literacy classes soon relapse into illiteracy - especially in the rural areas, where the lack of reading materials and a supportive learning environment is acute. This report is intended to give accounts of a variety of activities which provide further educational opportunities. These activities, of course, cannot remain static but must be subject to continuing development and refinement.

1. BACKGROUND AND CONTEXT

1.1 Geographical, Socio-Economic and Cultural Background

Geography

Thailand is situated within the Southeast Asian peninsula, between latitudes 5°40' and 20°30' North and longitudes 97°30' and 105°45' East. It has borders in the east with Laos and Kampuchea, in the north with Burma and Laos, in the west with Burma and in the south with Malaysia. Its total area is approximately 500,000 square kilometres which makes it a little smaller than France. Approximately 45 per cent of the land is under cultivation. The rest is either grassland and forest or devoted to industry. Thailand has about 2,600 kilometres of shoreline, facing the Indian Ocean to the west and the China Sea to the east. The country is divided into 4 major regions; Central, North, Northeast, and South.

According to 1982 statistics, Thailand has approximately 44,000 kilometres of roads, 4,000 kilometres of railways, 265 radio stations and 9 television channels.

Socio-Economic Conditions

In the course of rapid development during the past two decades, industrial production has become an important supplement to agriculture. The average national per capita income increased from approximately US $ 110 in 1961 to approximately US $ 750 in 1981. Large income disparities between the rich and the poor continue to present a critical problem. This is evident from the fact that the average annual per capita income of the upper 12.5% of wage earners amounts to US $ 2,420, whereas that of the 68.5% of the population engaged in agriculture is only US $ 272. Income variations also exist between different areas. It has been estimated that approximately 10 million rural inhabitants earn below the national per capita income.

Political Systems

Thailand, which was the 55th nation to join the U.N., has a form of government similar to that of Great Britain, i.e., a constitutional monarchy. The three fundamental institutions are nation, religion, and king. Parliament is composed of 225 appointed members of the Senate, and 301 elected to the House of

Representatives. The King's sovereign power emanates from the people and is exercised in three ways: legislative power through the National Assembly, executive power through the Cabinet and judicial power through the law courts. King Bhumibol Adulyadej, the present monarch, belongs to the Chakkri Dynasty, which has ruled the country continuously for just over two hundred years.

Demographical Features

The present population of Thailand is 47 million, with 24 million males and 23 million females; 80 per cent of the population lives in rural areas and 6 million in the Bangkok metropolitan area.

The population is increasing at the rate of 2.1 per cent per year, which represents a significant drop from 3.3 per cent a decade ago. This rate is expected to further decrease to 1.5 per cent by the year 1986. The average life expectancy for both men and women is 62 years.

Culture, Religion and Languages

Thai culture has been assumed to represent a blending of great traditions from major ancient civilizations to the west (India) and northeast (China) and indigeneous traditions of a less advanced agricultural society. Certainly the borrowings and adaptations of these traditions are evident not only in the Thai language, arts, and religion, but also in the Thai ethos and lifestyle. And it is equally apparent that some of these traditions were filtered through and altered by other South and Southeast Asian civilizations. However, archeological findings in Thailand over the last 15 years have raised certain questions about these views of Southeast Asian pre-history and suggest the possibility of an early Thai or pre-Thai civilisation more advanced than previously thought.

Ninety-five per cent of the Thai people are Buddhists, approximately 4 per cent are Muslims, and the remainder belong to the Christian and other faiths. Thus, Buddhism is the national religion.

Almost all Thais (with the exception of some minorities) speak and understand the Thai language. There are dialect variations between people living in different parts of the country, but this does not greatly hamper communication. Other languages used in Thailand are English, which is widely used among modern

business people and academics; Chinese, which is used in business and trading; Malaysian, used among the Muslims in the four provinces in the southern tip of the country; Khmer, used among the people living close to the Thai-Kampuchean borders; and many tribal languages used among the 500,000 hill-tribesmen of the highlands in the northern and western parts of the country.

Thailand is divided administratively into regions, provinces, districts (amphur), sub-districts (tambon), and villages (Moo Ban). There are 73 provinces in the four regions of the country, 611 amphurs and 5,983 tambons.

1.2 Educational System

History and Development

The Thai alphabet was created by King Ram Khamhaeng the Great of the Sukhothai Dynasty around 1283. It was based on the Devanakari scripts of southern India. Education as traditionally pursued was aimed at teaching people to read and write so that they would be able either to study the religious scriptures or become clerks in the courts. The needs for reading and writing then were not great. Learning was pursued within the limited circle of the rich and noble and was not compulsory. Commoners desirous of any kind of learning had to seek out their own teachers and places of learning. Buddhist monasteries, where monks served as teachers, provided most of the opportunities. Court children were taught within the palace compounds.

Thanks to the astuteness of the Thai monarchy, Thailand successfully circumvented colonial domination by Western powers. King Rama IV, who guided the country in the mid-19th century, was keenly aware of the importance of learning. King Rama IV himself had studied widely. He was interested both in wordly and spiritual matters.

In the reign of Rama V, Thailand saw development in many spheres. The new king, son of Rama IV, established administrative systems and set up railroads, telegraphs, and telephones. He opened up modern schools to the public for the first time in 1870. He sent close advisors and their sons abroad for studies in specialized fields.

The popular uprisings that led in 1932 to the change of government from an absolute to a constitutional monarchy ushered

in particularly rapid expansion in basic education. The number of literate citizens became linked with political rights and privileges; it determined whether a voting district would have an additional elected representative or senator. More people became interested in learning both within the monasteries and the new schools.

So, education, which developed from the early days where "teachers gave out everything and students returned them in kind", evolved into a school system for preparing the Thai people to become clerks in the civil service system, thus strengthening the state bureaucracy. Education served to steer the Thai state safely through the onrush of colonialist powers. Education at this time was greatly influenced by the ideas and practices brought to Thailand by returning Thai students and foreign advisors, mostly from England and Europe and later from the United States. The committees designing educational reforms tried to chart out a new course of education, changing from an over-emphasis on a stronger and more efficient bureaucracy to the education for life and the needs of society.

Present Status

The present compulsory education law requires that children complete 6 years of school between the ages of six and twelve. The 4-6 years age group population currently stands at 4,120,302, of which 399,400 are enrolled in pre-primary schools. Enrolment figures for other levels of education are as follows:

- *Primary education* (7 to 12 years of age): The total age group population is 7,711,194. The enrolment is 7,449,219 (96 per cent of all persons aged 7 to 12 and 74 per cent of all students enrolled in formal education).

- *Lower secondary education* (13 to 15 years of age): The total age group population is 3,555,712. The enrolment is 1,106,791 (31.13 per cent of all persons aged 13 to 15 or 10.99 per cent of students enrolled in formal education).

- *Upper secondary education* (16 to 19 years of age): The total age group population is 4,303,731. The enrolment is 884,075 (20.54 per cent of all persons aged 16 to 19 or 8.78 per cent of students in formal education).

- *Universities and colleges* (19 to 24 years of age): The total age group population is 5,600,845. The enrolment is 235,092 (4.19 per cent of all persons aged 19 to 24 or 2.34 per cent of students enrolled in formal schools).

- *Nonformal education*: The total number of persons enrolled in all types of nonformal education programmes in Thailand is 1,383,563 of which 846,178 are in urban areas, and 537,385 are in rural areas.

The illiteracy rate in 1981 was 14.5 per cent.

1.3 Literacy Situation

Formal education has concentrated on literacy and numeracy and a knowledge of self and society, graded according to level and age. It has a sequential structure from level to level which precludes further opportunity to those who have failed to pass the primary level. Those who drop out may have achieved a certain level of literacy and those who complete a particular level will know somewhat more, depending on the quality of instruction. But this learning is not deep-rooted and is, therefore, transient. Those unfortunate enough to be in a situation that does not require them to use the skills they have learned soon forget them.

Between 1940 and 1962, the programme of adult education was in response to the Compulsory Education Act requiring illiterates to enroll in adult education classes organised by the government. The main purpose of the literacy classes was to enable the participants to read and write and also develop the qualities of good citizenship. Efforts were also made to infuse vocational components in the literacy curriculum.

Until 1960 about 23 per cent of the population aged 15 and over was illiterate (1960 census). Hence a mass literacy campaign was organised. The curriculum of this campaign was a combination of two components: basic literacy skills (reading, writing and arithmetic) and occupational skills. Learners could receive 2 levels of certificates, equivalent to two years and four years of formal education. This enabled the learners to continue to move on to higher levels on the formal education ladder. These types of classes are still being offered in penal institutions and schools in urban areas.

In the 1970s the concept of functional literacy became more popular. This helped the learners to acquire skills not only of 3 R's but also in creating an awareness of the forces at work within their social milieu. The curriculum was developed on the basis of a survey of the needs of the people, and contains four main parts: agriculture and other occupations, basic health care, economics, and civics. Eighty per cent of the curriculum content consists of required courses; the other 20 per cent comprises content selected jointly by the teachers and students to suit their particular needs and local conditions. The time needed to complete the course is 200 hours. The predominant instructional method is discussion. Instructors have to be trained in nonformal education methods and techniques provided for them by the Department of Nonformal Education. Enrolment is voluntary and learners are required to take three kinds of tests: pre, formative and post. These tests are administered to determine progress and for the purpose of diagnosis, as well as to help determine whether or not a student passes; here the teacher has the last word.

The functional literacy programme in Thailand has taken many forms to suit various conditions and the needs of the population served. These programmes, staffed by "walking teachers", are set up to reach illiterates living in remote areas. Teachers, college student volunteers, and priests are among the instructors recruited for the functional literacy programme. There is also the functional literacy programme for illiterate military draftees, as well as for minorities like the Malay-speaking population in the South and the hill tribes in the North.

2. GENERAL ISSUES

The government has been well aware that if it is going to improve the well-being of the people it will need to help the approximately 80 per cent who reside in the rural areas, and in particular the 10 million living in poverty. A large amount of the budget has been put into different forms of rural development, including the creation of jobs in rural areas - perhaps the single most important recent government project. The main thrusts for development are the eradication of poverty, disease and inadequate educational opportunity. Examples of these programmes include the development of water resources, creation of jobs, basic health care, and mass education.

2.1 Policy

According to the 5th National Economic and Social Development Plan, Thailand will have reduced the illiteracy rate of 14.5 per cent in 1982 to about 10.5 per cent in 1986, a reduction of approximately 1 million illiterates. Standard literacy programmes do not have the capacity for achieving this figure. In 1983, therefore, the government began a national, voluntary, mass literacy campaign. At the time of writing this, the survey of the target groups and the production of learning materials have already been completed.

To buttress the skills, knowledge, and attitudes neo-literates gain from literacy classes, they need to be provided with further learning materials and other support. This is properly called post-literacy and continuing education.

Educational planning that concentrates on formal schooling has proved inadequate to meet all of society's needs. Supplementary educational activities in both formal and nonformal contexts have evolved of necessity. The Ministry of Education established an Adult Education Division in 1940. This division was responsible for providing education to out-of-school adults in the form of a programme parallel to the formal system. The teaching process and content are adjusted to match the age and experience of the learners, with the emphasis on rational thinking, practical skills and problem-solving. Learners are encouraged to reflect on and discuss problems relating to themselves and their community. Where appropriate, the basic content is drawn from formal education. The Adult Education Division has

assumed increasing responsibilities and is now the sole government agency responsible for alternative education for the out-of-school population. The division offered basic level education, i.e., functional literacy, to those who had missed schooling. It provided skill training programmes to the rural and out-of-school populations. At the same time the division was involved with organising village newspaper-reading centres, district and provincial public libraries and similar programmes for generating learning environments for neo-literates.

2.2 Methods and Objectives

In Thailand, organised education was at first concerned only with schooling in a graded sequence from the primary through the secondary to the tertiary level. Enrolment was based on age. The present compulsory education law requires that children complete six years of school between the ages of 6 and 12 years. Many children failed to comply with the law. These children miss educational opportunities because of economic reasons, ignorance, a lack of schools, access difficulties, or because they spoke a language different from the majority culture. These conditions have served to engender basic illiterate groups.

This problem may be attacked through knowledge of the problems of the community and through organising alternative activities that take children out of their families and bring them together to learn and practise knowledge and skills for vocational purposes, and to work together for society. A sufficient number of institutions must be established to provide continuous educational opportunity to children who lack formal schooling, according to their abilities and situation. Such institutions could, for example, be located in temples, museums, libraries, art institutions, radio and television programmes, sports, music and youth-training camps.

The repeal of the 1943 Literacy Education Act after World War II gave the impression that illiteracy was no longer a problem, when, in fact there still remained hundreds of thousands of illiterates. Surveys conducted during the 1960s indicated that not only were there millions of illiterates but that many neo-literates, especially in rural areas, had relapsed into illiteracy after a few years.

Since the late sixties, Thailand has reformed and expanded both literacy and post-literacy programmes. Many new programmes

have been designed for specific target populations (rural, urban and minorities) and include objectives related to the attainment and maintenance of literacy skills. Needs for reading and writing skills are met through a variety of means organised by the Department of Nonformal Education (NFE) as well as other agencies. These include: wall newspapers, public libraries, continuing education, distance education, vocational education, educational museums, etc. At the same time the Department has initiated efforts to monitor, evaluate and provide for the continuing development of each of these programmes.

The current illiteracy rate in Thailand is 14.5 per cent. Being well aware of the important role of literacy in enhancing development, the government has assigned the Ministry of Education the responsibility of reducing illiteracy to 10.5 per cent by 1986. The difference of 4 per cent, however, amounts to about 1.5 million illiterates across the nation. The mandate of mass literacy was proclaimed in the present National Social and Economic Development Plan (the 5th cycle: 1982-86). Thus, from 1983 the Ministry of Education, through the Department of Non-Formal Education (NFE), has started the mass literacy campaign, which is to be accomplished by utilising the voluntary efforts of the literate population. Initially, the campaign is being organised in 18 provinces and will be gradually expanded to other parts of the country.

2.3 Institutional Aspects

In its efforts to combat the problems of sickness, poverty and poor educational opportunities, the Thai government has laid down guidelines for the integration of efforts among the four principal ministries working directly with the rural people: the Ministry of the Interior, the Ministry of Public Health, the Ministry of Agriculture and Co-operatives and the Ministry of Education. These four ministries are to work together as a team, formulating common objectives and pooling resources. The Office of the National Economic and Social Development Board is the main co-ordinator of this effort. The responsibilities of each ministry are as follows:

Ministry of Education: Providing educational opportunities of various types to all age groups and supporting the development efforts of other agencies.

Ministry of Public Health: Providing basic health services for every village in the country.

Ministry of Agriculture and Co-operatives: Supporting rural people in their agricultural and related occupations so that they can attain higher levels of self-reliance and self-sufficiency.

Ministry of the Interior: Promoting local government and democratic institutions in order to assist and sustain progress in other areas.

Department of Nonformal Education (NFE)

The Department of Nonformal Education, which is charged with providing educational services and opportunities for people of all ages, has a very important role to play in rural development.

The NFE has the responsibility for planning, research, development, support, promotion, co-ordination, service and operations in nonformal education.

There are many kinds of post-literacy programmes offered by the NFE: classroom, semi-classroom, and non-classroom types. Classroom programmes include equivalency education, certificate programmes, continuing education, and vocational education of various lengths. Semi-classroom education includes short courses (up to 38 hours), interest groups, and radio-correspondence courses. Non-classroom education includes radio-correspondence programmes, wall newspapers, and village reading centres, libraries, mobile book boxes and outdoor audio-visual shows.

The major goals and objectives of the NFE are the following:

- To solve illiteracy problems; to provide education for the underprivileged; to arrange short vocational training courses; to promote the habit of reading alone; to set up educational museums; to administer mass media education and other appropriate forms of nonformal education for promoting the people's knowledge and capabilities, so as to help them upgrade their standard of living, solve their problems in everyday life, develop their community and perform their duties as good citizens in a democratic society.

- To prepare plans and conduct research, develop models and conduct training on nonformal education and to co-ordinate nonformal education services conducted by other private and governmental agencies.

- To support, promote and provide services of nonformal education for other nonformal education agencies through training courses, curriculum development, production of nonformal education materials, and through meetings and seminars.

The NFE consists of seven divisions as depicted in Fig. 1 right.

In addition, there are regional NFE centres which provide various types of technical, operational and planning assistance to provincial NFE centres in their areas of responsibility. Similarly, the provincial NFE centres are agencies with the responsibility of helping provinces in administering NFE activities, in co-ordinating and co-operating with both private and governmental agencies and in offering many types of nonformal education according to the requirements of each province. Presently, there are 43 provincial NFE centres across the country. By 1985 the NFE hopes to set up 30 additional centres.

Centre for Educational Technology

The centre is responsible for the organisation of services and the promotion of teaching through the uses of innovations and new technologies for both the formal and nonformal education system. The centre conducts research on the uses of educational innovations and techniques. It also serves as a clearing house, collecting and disseminating information on educational innovations and technologies. The Ministry of Education began radio programmes for a general audience in 1954, and in 1958 it began operating school programmes. These programmes are broadcast from one Bangkok-based station and from twenty other radio stations in the country. Since 1983 the Ministry of Education has been operating educational broadcasts using the National Radio Network-2, sharing air time with the Sukhothaithammathirat Open University, the Ministry of Public Health, and the Ministry of Agriculture and Co-operatives.

Centre for Educational Museums

Some years ago Thailand set up an archaeological museum,

Figure 1

Administrative Organisation of the Nonformal Education Department of Thailand

NONFORMAL EDUCATION DEPARTMENT
OFFICE OF THE SECRETARY
- The Correspondence and Documentation Section
- The Personnel Section
- The Finance and Accounts Section
- The Procurement Section
- The Design and Construction Section
- The Public Relations Section
PLANNING AND RESEARCH DIVISION
- The Administrative Section
- The Statistics and Research Section
- The Planning and Budgeting Section
- The Evaluation and Report Section
- The Foreign Relations Section
- The Secretariat for the National Nonformal Education Co-ordinating Committee
NONFORMAL EDUCATION DEVELOPMENT DIVISION
- The Administrative Section
- The Curriculum and Textbooks Development Section
- The Educational Standards Section
- The Personnel Development Section
- The Publications and Dissemination Section
OPERATIONS DIVISION
- The Administrative Section
- The Functional Literacy Section
- The General and Vocational Continuing Education Section
- The Nonformal Education Development Project Section
- The Public Education Section
- The Radio and Correspondence Nonformal Education Section
CENTRE FOR EDUCATIONAL TECHNOLOGY
- The Administrative Section
- The Schools Broadcasting Section
- The General Educational Radio Section
- The Educational Television Section
- The Audio-Visual Material Production Section
- The Technical Section
- The Education Innovation and Technology Development Section
CENTRE FOR EDUCATIONAL MUSEUMS
- The Secretariat Section
- The Bangkok Planetarium Section
- The Science Museum Section
- The Natural History Museum Section
- The Workshop Section
- The Design Section
- The Art Section
- The Business Section
- The Academic Service Section
- The Thai History and Culture Museum Section
- The Mobile Exhibition Section
THE EDUCATIONAL SUPERVISION UNIT

originally for the purpose of safeguarding valuable antiques and exhibiting them to the public. An educational purpose has since developed. Similar efforts were made in science; the Ministry of Education made a substantial investment in the Bangkok Planetarium, opened in 1964 under the Division of Educational Equipment. At present 200,000 people visit the planetarium annually. In 1976, another major project, the Science Museum, was begun. It opened in 1979. Annual visitors number more than 500,000. The Division of Educational Equipment, which was responsible for these two institutions, became the Division of Educational Museums and later the Centre for Educational Museums under the Department of Educational Techniques.

The above description shows that although the structure of the Ministry of Education emphasised formal rather than non-formal education, changes in the social, economic and political situation have forced adjustments leading to the establishment of the three agencies outlined above.

The Adult Education Division of the Department of General Education had its target clearly specified as the out-of-school population. The Centre for Educational Technology and the Educational Museums of the Department of Educational Techniques serve both in-school and out-of-school users. In 1979 the Ministry of Education united these three agencies under the newly-established NFE.

3. SPECIFIC TECHNIQUES

Urban groups are more fortunate than rural ones, for the free flow of information creates a need for literacy. Those who cannot read or write will be at a disadvantage. Those who want to acquire skills and competencies can generally obtain them - the exception being those who are too poor. However, in a rural, closed society, where there is little exchange of written information, the need for literacy skills is minimal. Even those who acquire literacy skills soon relapse into illiteracy because of a lack of reading materials and a supportive learning environment.

In order to solve some of these and related problems of literacy, post-literacy and continuing education, the NFE has specifically designed new programmes for various target populations - including those in the rural, tribal and hilly areas.

3.1 General Continuing Education

The stated purpose of general continuing education, whether it be school or community-based, has been to provide learners with the basic information they need in their daily lives and to serve as a necessary background for the learner to acquire a more refined or sophisticated body of knowledge and skills. General continuing education has sometimes enjoyed greater prestige than its vocational counterpart; it has frequently served more to help learners climb up the academic ladder than to impact directly in their non-school lives. Learners seem to prefer to pursue education in competing for increasingly limited seats at the higher levels of education. Education to enable individuals to become "white collar" workers in the civil service, as initially conceived in the reign of King Rama V, is here to stay.

But such education has recently been severely criticized as giving learners false or unrealistic hopes for the future. Formal school education has not always been immediately applicable to real life situations. Thus, contemporary educators have attempted to provide alternatives with the concept of lifelong learning.

Even before the Adult Education Division initiated general continuing education ten years ago, the Thai educational system

had made available equivalency examinations at education offices across the country. By this means many Thai adults have indeed advanced themselves and attained important government and non-government positions.

Learners

The programme was conducted throughout the country, with well over one hundred thousand graduates per year. Among learners in this programme were both those with clear goals and objectives and those without them. The former took certificate programmes to enable them to move further up the educational ladder and obtain employment. At the same time, there were those who merely wanted to add to their experience. But regardless of motivation, the rewards were worthwhile. Learners not only obtained financial benefits, but gained confidence, recognition and a sense of individual worth.

Types of Programmes

The former Adult Education Division (AED) initiated the concept of general continuing education in 1969. The AED made use of the available classroom facilities and the staff of the regular formal schools, and at the same time took charge of curriculum planning, budget allocation, supervision, and follow-up activities. At the start, these programmes were organised into 3 levels above the functional literacy level (Levels 1-2):

Level 3 (Equivalent to Grade 6)
Level 4 (Equivalent to Grade 9)
Level 5 (Equivalent to Grade 12)

The curriculum of both Level 3 and Level 4 covered 6 subject areas: Thai Language, English, Arithmetic, Science, Social Sciences, and occupation-oriented elective subjects. Students had to pass each of these subjects, normally taking about 1.1/2 years to qualify for the certificates equivalent to those in the formal system. For Level 5, the upper secondary curriculum was used without any adaptation, requiring two years to complete as in the formal system. Students had to repeat each class that they failed.

Curriculum Reforms

In recent years, curriculum modifications have been made in response to reforms in the formal education curriculum. First, a

system of credit hours with a number of electives is used in place of a set curriculum with minimal electives. Second, the structure has been changed to be consistent with the changes made in the formal school system, i.e., Level 3 is now equivalent to grade 6, Level 4 to grade 9, and Level 5 to grade 12. Presently, the out-of-school education Level 5 is being offered in those schools where upper secondary education classes (grade 10-11-12) are offered, usually in the municipal areas or in large cities.

For general continuing education Levels 3 and 4, curricula which initially had a strong academic emphasis were revised to make them more suitable to the realities that learners face in everyday living. New methods and processes of instruction, evaluation, and testing were also introduced, with the general approach based on problem-solving. Students are encouraged to share insights and experiences in solving commonly conceived problems. Teachers stimulate or motivate the learning processes and supply the technical information learners require. The new curriculum is called "Functional Continuing Education". Since the individuals who teach these classes are accustomed to traditional, more directive methods (because they are teachers in formal schools), they have to undergo a special training programme before becoming eligible to teach Functional Education classes.

The Functional Education classes Levels 3 and 4 are presently being offered both in secondary and primary schools in the more populated areas all over the country. Most learners are between 14 and 25 years of age. In smaller communities, the students of the Functional Education classes are easily distinguished by their uniforms (although uniforms are not required). Uniforms seem to give them the recognition they desire.

Radio Correspondence Programme

At present there are more than 250 transmission stations in the country, with approximately 70 per cent of all households owning at least one receiver. The importance of radio as a means of transmitting education programmes to learners has been recognised for a long time. In Thailand, education programmes have been on the air for more than 10 years. These programmes have mostly been supplementary to school-based instruction. Only during the past 3 to 4 years has the NFE initiated its own radio programmes for out-of-school populations.

Although sending information by radio is cheap and results in wide coverage, the message transmitted is short-lived and monological. The latter aspect seems to go against the accepted method of teaching, which encourages two-way communication, where students have the opportunity to exchange ideas and experiences. To overcome the limitations of educational programmes using radio transmission, the NFE makes use of postal services to enable learners and subject-matter specialists to interact. Further interaction is achieved by the presence of an organiser or a facilitator who holds weekly meetings with groups of students. The organiser provides students with suggestions and answers any questions that the students may have. There are three voluntary activities within the radio correspondence programme: individual listening to scheduled broadcasts, individual study of the programme manuals and completion of related exercises or assignments, and periodic group meetings.

The NFE started radio correspondence education in 1979 for Functional Education Levels 3 and 4. The four Regional NFE Centres were charged with carrying out experimental programmes within their region. There is much interest in the programme, as indicated by course enrolment; the places available cannot keep up with the number of persons wanting to register. However, the programme is continuous, and individuals not able to participate in the first instance have opportunities to do so later.

Although the present programmes are for Functional Education Levels 3 and 4, the NFE is considering introducing Level 5 soon. For the registered students, the benefits are the acquisition of vital information, skills, and attitudes. Besides the registered students, who directly benefit from the programme, a much larger population stands to benefit. For example, the programmes also enable neo-literates to maintain the skills they have acquired in other programmes.

Concluding Remarks

In sum, the basic tenet underlying the general continuing education programme, in either classroom or radio-correspondence format, is that it should be responsive to the needs of the prospective learners. While this programme is equivalent and parallel to the formal education process, it is designed to provide for maximum flexibility to suit the needs of learners. Examples of this flexibility are clearly evidenced in the radio-correspondence programme, which offers three self-contained but mutually reinforcing parts. Moreover, evening classes allow students during their free time to make up for lost opportunities.

3.2 Reading Programmes

Public Libraries

About 40 years ago the first public library was opened in Thailand. Today, there are about 400 public provincial, district, and mobile libraries. The functions of these libraries are to provide both the out-of-school and formal school population with new and up-to-date information, help them to acquire the habit of reading, and enable individuals to make wiser use of their free time. For neo-literates, libraries provide opportunities to practise their newly acquired skills. For illiterates, libraries serve as a motivational reminder that they, too, could be literate and that, once they have acquired literacy skills, they will be able to use them.

Although the libraries serve many purposes, they are expensive. They are, therefore, confined to cities and more densely populated areas. As a result, the people in the cities and larger district towns are still those who stand to benefit most from this programme. Although anyone can visit the libraries, only members may borrow books. The membership fee, however, is minimal.

Libraries keep both books and magazines, with content focusing on entertainment, occupations, general knowledge, and technical subjects. The budget comes from the government as well as public contributions. Working in co-operation with the Sukhothai-thammathirat Open University, an information exchange centre has been organised, thus making it possible for the libraries to better serve the public.

Village Reading Centres

Originally called Village Newspaper Reading Centres, the name was changed to Village Reading Centres to provide more emphasis on general reading materials, rather than on newspapers alone. These Centres represent an important activity of the NFE in its effort to alleviate the problem of people relapsing into illiteracy, especially in the rural areas.

The printing industry in Thailand has been extensively developed, both in quality and quantity, in the course of the many development plans of the past. Total newspaper sales have reached more than one million copies daily. But usually only people in the urban areas and suburbs read newspapers. Consequently, the

content is directed at them. Few people who live in distant villages get to read any newspapers on a regular basis. Because of this it should not be any surprise that there is a high rate of relapse into illiteracy in the rural areas.

The government provides a little financial support (approximately US $ 0.25 a day per village) for the villagers to buy a few newspapers for their villages, as well as providing the Village Reading Centres with other reading materials - some on a regular basis, such as the wall newspapers and pamphlets from various development service agencies. The wall newspapers provide the readers with basic information and news of government development programmes. A village committee takes charge of running the Village Reading Centre. The committee members are trained in a short programme and through periodic review sessions.

Book Circulation Programme

Since libraries are not readily accessible to the more remote populations, many villages are served by van-equipped mobile libraries, book boxes, or book sacks. Distribution and circulation are carried out by the villagers themselves. The provincial personnel of the NFE deliver the books to the village, pick them up, and take them to the next village. These programmes have received increasing support and acceptance by rural people in the contact areas.

The importance and use of libraries are increasing every day. Throughout the country, students of the Sukhothaithammathiraj Open University find in the library a resource centre. In addition, students of the NFE Radio and Correspondence Education Programme also need a library to which they can turn for their research and study.

Evaluation

Evaluation of library operations has revealed that progress has been slow. Many have neither their own buildings nor a librarian. A large number of library staff need training. In addition, the potential for other uses of the libraries has never been fully realised.

At present, approximately 10,000 of Thailand's 68,000 villages have Village Reading Centres with an estimated 15 to 18 people using each centre daily. A major survey of the centres was conducted in 1981, which revealed that more than half need

improvement or should be closed. The major difference between successful and unsuccessful centres lies in the interest and responsibility of the village committees. The location of the village is also an important factor in a centre's success. Remote villages experience difficulty in receiving newspapers. The rapid increase in the number of centres has sometimes resulted in a sacrifice of quality. The reasons are varied, but most important is that the centres' activities are not properly co-ordinated with the fight against illiteracy and with promotional and developmental literacy programmes. Another important reason is that the guiding principles underlying the organisation of the Village Reading Centres may have been neglected in the rush to increase their numbers in the most poverty-stricken and remote parts of the country, where the regular delivery of papers is almost impossible.

A somewhat pertinent observation overheard once was made by a highly respected adult educator of the NFE in response to the allegation that there are too many village reading centres in poor condition. To him we are getting our just reward, for how can we expect the villagers to be able to run the centres properly when we do not give them proper support and relevant training? The standards or criteria upon which we are to judge these villagers do not seem fair. Therefore, the presence of a library or a centre may not be enough to insure that illiterates and neo-literates will continue to benefit from knowledge and information provided.

3.3 Occupational Training

Almost all developing countries are constantly faced with the three basic but interrelated problems of limited education, disease, and poverty. To solve any one, one must deal with all the others at the same time. The principal functions of educational institutions are to alleviate people's ignorance and to assist them in their struggle against poverty. Part of this effort is directed at the development of skills to increase people's income.

In early development plans, there was an emphasis on the development of a workforce, especially the middle-level needed for the labour markets. With such an emphasis, free and independent vocational pursuits were neglected. Besides, the middle-level workforce requires manpower with at least secondary education certificates, thus leaving untouched the problem of rural

people with low educational attainment. It is no surprise that a large section of the rural population - about 20 per cent - is still living below the poverty line. Not only are educational requirements set too high, but the various training courses are often too long and their content too specific.

Courses and Related Aspects

With this in mind, the NFE has tried to organise vocational training programmes of various lengths and with wideranging scope - especially in those areas related to major occupations and people's daily lives. Vocational courses range in length from 50 to 300 hours in four areas, including industry, home economics, business and agriculture. But within these areas the emphasis is to teach content and practices suitable to the rural population. The engine repair course, for example, deals with small engines of the type found in water pumps, motorcycles, etc. Fees are minimal and educational requirements are low, requiring only basic reading, writing, and numeracy skills (for simple calculations, notetaking and communication).

In an attempt to meet the diverse needs of the rural people, the NFE has organised a short training course called the "Interest Group Programme". Villages, with the aid of a district education officer and the Provincial NFE Centre, identify the area of interest in which they want to study, recruit at least 15 learners, and find an instructor (if possible) and meeting place. Once approved, the NFE will provide the instructor's fees. No courses may exceed 30 hours in length. The purpose of the short course is both self-improvement and self-employment.

Evaluation

Evaluation of these vocational programmes conducted by the NFE has revealed that the major problems are drop-outs and the shortage of educational materials. But NFE officials replied that rather than considering dropouts as a problem, dropping out should be considered as an indication that the needs of learners had already been met; students had got what they wanted from the classes and left. If that is true, then the breakdown of various long courses into smaller independent units, as has already been done in the NFE, may prove to be a move in the right direction. These nonformal vocational courses have also been found to enable learners to improve their living standards.

3.4 Reading Materials

The mass media in Thailand have developed considerably, and newspapers have spread into many different places. But newspapers alone cannot prevent the relapse into illiteracy. The language used in the newspapers is too difficult for neo-literates. The printed letters are too small and the content is of more interest to urban residents and the middle class.

The NFE, in its attempt to alleviate the shortage of suitable neo-literate reading materials, has produced materials in many forms more appropriate for rural populations.

Wall Newspapers

The NFE Development Division is responsible for producing wall newspapers with a nationwide circulation. The Regional NFE Centres produce wall newspapers for each of their regions, with these newspapers distributed to libraries, Village Reading Centres, and village headmen's homes. The papers deal with such topics as agriculture, occupations, health, culture, religion, law, and current affairs.

Supplementary Materials

With financial assistance from UNICEF, the NFE began the production of supplementary reading materials through its four Regional Centres in 1979. During the period of 1979-1982, 45 books with a total of 225,000 copies were produced.

3.5 Radio Education Programmes

Radio as a means of education has both advantages and disadvantages. But, among the technologies that have had the greatest impact on education, radio stands out. Radio is being used as a medium for educating a large sector of the population, since undistorted radio messages can travel for almost unlimited distances.

Operational Aspects

The curricula of the equivalency programmes are closely related to formal education but linked with real life. The resources, personnel, buildings and equipment are those of the formal school system. Teachers are given special training to

assist them in understanding psychological and other principles and in mastering methods of teaching skills and competency. School-based instruction has spread all over the country in primary and secondary schools. Equivalency education Level 3 (equivalent to grade 6) must operate in a formal school, which offers 6 years of schooling. Education Level 4 (grade 9) must be based in a secondary school which goes up to grade 9. Such schools are usually situated in provincial and district centres, with very few in sub-districts. These are the limitations for rural people who live far away from schools, especially for Levels 3 and 4. People living in urban areas may live close to a school offering nonformal education classes, but due to poverty they are often deprived of educational opportunity. This widening gap is to be filled with radio-correspondence programmes to serve these disadvantaged people.

Areas of Expansion

Learning from its many experiences and successes, educational radio has expanded in three areas, of which the first two are operated by the Centre for Educational Technology and the third by the Department of Teachers Training: School Radio, Radio-Correspondence and Radio Programmes for Professional Advancement. A major expansion will be initiated in 1984 when the national educational broadcasting system (National Radio Network-2), now under construction, begins operations. This system's broadcast will reach over 90 per cent of the country. It will provide 18 hours of educational broadcasting each day beginning at 5.30 a.m. Programming will cover all levels (primary through university) of both the school and out-of-school systems. There will be programmes designed for specific groups of students, as well as general broadcasts.

Types of Radio Education Programmes

The radio education programmes operated by the Ministry of Education are the following:

The *School Radio Programme* prepares radio scripts for primary education in the Thai language, arithmetic, social and life enrichment and experiences, and music. The English language programme is organised at the secondary education level.

The *Radio-Correspondence Programme* was organised for the out-of-school population to provide an opportunity for learners to pursue relevant learning on their own by using handbooks,

texts, and guidelines provided by the NFE. The four Regional NFE Centres located at Lampang in the North, Songkhla in the South, Ubon in the Northeast, and Rajburi in the Central Plains serve as co-ordinating centres for developing curricula, materials and plans in their respective regions. The centres handle class registration, organisation and recruitment of group organisers, as well as evaluation and follow-up of the programme.

The Radio-Correspondence Programme started as an experimental project in 1972, with each Regional Centre developing a curriculum and programme to suit regional needs and conditions. Ending its experimental phase, the programme began normal operations in 1982. The programme has extended its coverage to a larger number of provinces and met with great success.

At each Regional NFE Centre, annual planning meetings are organised to set up target enrolments, areas of operation, public relations, communications, registration, time schedules, follow-up, and management of class atmosphere and teacher and student manuals. The curricula developed at each centre are similar, containing comparable content in arithmetic, science and language. The differences lie in those features unique to each region in terms of language, arts, culture and occupations. The content is derived from and exemplified by real life situations as they exist within the region. An example would be mathematical problems relevant to local occupations and other life pursuits. Usually formal instruction is in the form of narration and discussion, but local songs and regional dramatic forms are also used.

Curricula for each region must contain core material that imbues learners with positive attitudes, understanding, and pride in the three fundamental institutions: nation, religion, and king. Besides this, the curriculum will provide learners with an appreciation for democracy under the monarch as head of state. Other materials, including what is commonly known as Life Experiences, vary according to each region.

Radio-Correspondence Education is also conducted in the form of interest groups in addition to the out-of-school programme which parallels formal school education. The Interest Group Programme serves illiterates who have interests in such subjects as agriculture, industry, and nutrition. There are a number of other courses which reflect learners' varying needs and interests and provide them with occupational information and skills. The Interest Group Programme conducts short courses of varying

lengths but none exceeds 30 hours. Learners listen to radio broadcasts and are given programme manuals. Programme organisers meet with the learners at locations chosen with the design of maximizing the uses and understanding of lessons learned.

Credits for occupational courses taken in the Interest Group Programme can be transferred to the Functional Education Programme. This is an attempt to equate the Radio Correspondence Education with all other types of programmes. Eventually an attempt will be made to link these nonformal components with their formal education counterparts. Radio and Correspondence Education is a means of meeting the needs for education of both in- and out-of-school populations.

The *Radio Programme for Professional Advancements* is carried out by the Department of Teacher Training to prepare teachers with either no or low level teaching certificates for upgrading examinations. The programme also conducts radio programmes featuring much useful information for general audiences. These programmes are organised by the Ministry of Education. In addition, there are radio programmes offered by other units and agencies such as Sukhothaithammathiraj, an open university offering educational programmes leading to a bachelor's degree. Other ministries also conduct radio programmes in their areas of specialization.

Education through radio programmes is an important activity providing learners with relevant educational experiences no matter where the learners may be. Knowledge is transmitted 18 hours a day. Learners can choose whatever topics they prefer and at whatever times. With a radio set, which is now locally produced, and cheap, they can continue to search for useful knowledge. Therefore, it is believed that the radio broadcasting will create a learning atmosphere and will serve as a truly important factor for continuing and lifelong education in the days to come.

3.6 Science Museum

The Centre for Educational Museums is one of 7 division-level bodies within the NFE. This centre is responsible for organising activities aimed at the dissemination of various types of data required by rural and urban people of all ages and sexes for continuing self-discovery learning. One such programme conducted by the centre is the Science Museum.

The Science Museum provides an open classroom environment with enough freedom to enhance the curiosity of an individual. In such a situation individuals can think, explore, observe, experiment, touch, read, and discover by themselves in any chosen subject. A learner can study as long as and as often as he wishes. The museum creates a feeling in the mind that one has at one's disposal a huge laboratory which one can use to further knowledge and perception.

The laws and theories of science are derived from the phenomena in nature. Man, being a part of nature, should have a true understanding of these phenomena in order to apply them in his life. However, it is unfortunate that in order to explain natural occurrences man has devised increasingly complex symbols, rules, and formulas. Consequently, science has become a profession engaging only a small group of people, called scientists, who are commonly believed to have special intelligence. Science is therefore out of the common man's reach. This, in fact, should not be the case; science should be a relevant subject for everyone.

Exhibition Guidelines

Natural phenomena are generally obscure and subtle, and some occur on too large or too small a scale to be observed without special techniques and equipment. Methods of presentation should add to educational values and have a connection with daily life. The principles underlying the presentations in the museum are:

- Both basic and applied science and technology that are useful to present society should be selected.

- Presentations should be made in an attractive and lively way and should include visual and tactile stimuli.

- There should be minimal use of language in describing the presentation, which should allow self-teaching. Words used should be simple, concise, common, and clearly written.

- The interest of viewers should be captured by posing, visually and tactilely, questions which can be manipulated to yield an answer. The interest in the nature of events and the struggle to read to understand provide a greater impetus to learning than any book can.

Operational and Related Aspects

The Science Museum of the NFE aims at providing knowledge of science and technology to people of all ages and educational levels in order to foster equal opportunity for study and self-learning. Efforts are being made to organise exhibits relating to basic and applied science, and explanations are provided concerning the physical and biological sciences.

Owing to limitations in space, the selected topics in applied science are transportation, population, man and energy. About 20 per cent of the building space is made available for special exhibitions, which change every 2 to 3 months. Moreover, there is outdoor space for recreation, botanical gardens, and appropriate technology exhibitions. Occasionally, a science fair is organised, and more outdoor games are available.

Most exhibits are designed to be operated by visitors. What we try to do is to make science as simple as possible, so that it is perceived as part of the individual's life. Our aims are self-learning and freedom in learning. Complicated things are explained in terms of cause and effect and made more interesting and easy to learn. The quality of an exhibition is judged by its content and appropriateness from academic, technological and psychological viewpoints.

According to the records, the museum has served over 500,000 visitors in about 250 days. This shows the popularity of the programme. Hence, it can be said that:

- The Science Museum is a science and technology institute for people of all ages and educational levels.
- The Science Museum is an institute which creates and preserves national symbols in the field of science and technology and encourages further development.
- The Science Museum is not only an institute for scientific and technological appreciation, but also a recreational centre.

3.7 Mobile Science Exhibitions

People who live outside the city are naturally deprived of the educational opportunity provided by the museum. This is

especially true in a country where income differences are still large and average incomes are very low. Mobile exhibitions are therefore seen as an important supplementary service. The mobile exhibition unit travels to the people. Though a mobile unit cannot serve as a complete substitute for a museum, it can still provide important knowledge which may eventually lead to application and imaginative development.

Objectives

The Science Museum of the NFE has for many years organised mobile exhibitions. The idea is to bring useful science and technology to rural audiences. The main purpose of the mobile exhibition is to stimulate curiosity. Opportunities for people to acquire useful and up-to-date information and knowledge in both the natural sciences and technology are essential if they are to continue to develop as productive, self-directed, and continuous learners. Educational services as such will have to be made attractive and located in places convenient to the people. These services must vary to be able to respond to different interests and needs of people of all ages.

Operational Aspects

The exhibits are displayed in boxes housed in a trailer. Each trailer carries approximately 24 to 28 boxes, each of which covers one complete theme. To organise an effective mobile exhibition team one must take into consideration the viewers' preferences, background and problems. The topics and designs must be appropriate and of high quality. The unit might organise libraries, demonstrations of rural technologies, creative mathematics or science games, showing of slides, lectures, discussions, question and answer sessions, and various kinds of competitions. The personnel must also possess discipline, quick minds, meticulousness, responsibility and team spirit.

To form a mobile exhibition team, we first sought government help, but as the government was suffering from budgetary restrictions, we looked to private agencies. Thanks to the good reputation which the Science Museum had earned through its service to the public since its opening in August 1979, in 1980 we acquired from the Esso Company the sum of Baht 1,000,000 or ca. US $ 50,000 towards the construction and organisation of the first mobile unit. In 1983 we received the sum of Baht 700,000 from the Caltex Company for the second unit. It is hoped that we will continue to receive donations for a total of five units serving the five regions of the country.

Achievements

The first unit was completed and held its first exhibition in Bangkok in 1982 during the city's bicentennial celebration. Then, from July to October, the unit toured the Northeast. The main theme presented was "Water for Life". More than 100,000 people saw the exhibition during the four-month tour. From June to September 1983, the unit toured the North. In the meantime, the second mobile team had been organised and was expected to be completed in early 1984.

Evaluation

The criteria used in the design of the unit's exhibitions are the same as those used in the Science Museum: simplicity, clarity, attractiveness, and visitors' involvement. Nevertheless, it is hardly possible for a small unit to provide as much public involvement as a large museum does Experimentation that needs fragile, expensive, and complicated equipment cannot be carried out in the mobile unit. Such equipment cannot be transported safely over what is sometimes difficult terrain. To offset this limitation, the unit has organised various supplementary features such as a book corner and film shows.

It may be quite evident now that a science museum can play an important role in bringing people closer to education. It stimulates them to search for knowledge and answers. The mobile units will help people to become more knowledgeable and to grow further. They offer a unique experience for rural people who may never have had a chance before to understand the environment in which they find themselves.

4. CONCLUSIONS

When a country has eradicated illiteracy, either through functional literacy programmes or compulsory primary education, then it must provide the neo-literates with activities directed at helping them maintain and develop their newly-acquired knowledge and skills. Neo-literates, if placed in situations where there is no need to study, in remote parts with no or little communication with the outside world, and with little need for further development, will soon relapse into illiteracy. In such cases, the considerable funds put into literacy and compulsory education are wasted. Each year a large number of students graduate from compulsory primary education but only 42 per cent continue their education at the secondary level, and of those only 22 per cent go on to colleges and universities. The group which concerns us most is the 58 per cent who do not continue their studies. They reside in rural areas, in remote locations, and are very poor. Another group requiring our attention consists of the dropouts and those who have never attended school because they happen to live where there is no school or are not proficient in the Central Thai language.

Consequently, the NFE is conducting educational activities for those aged 14 years and older. In the future, the NFE may also have to include those 12 years and older, as the national education system has shifted from a 4-3-3 to a 6-3-3 system; compulsory education will include only those who are 6 to 11 years of age. It will be the responsibility of the NFE to provide those aged 12 and above who have left school with basic knowledge, skills, vocational training and social understanding.

In a rapidly changing world where there is an increased readiness to accept new ideas, education has a key role to perform in helping people to become more critical thinkers, able to select what is best suited to themselves. Society must be so structured as to encourage people to become more inquisitive citizens. This can be done by giving them the opportunities, resources, and incentives they need to continue their learning. This includes provisions for the establishment of schools, resource centres, and an atmosphere supportive of self-development.

It takes time to develop a good educational programme and for those served to appreciate it. Hand-clapping requires both hands to produce a sound. The co-operation and understanding of

both hands, those producing programmes and those served by them, increases the applause.

To preclude a person from continuing to study at a higher level of education because of the means by which he or she wants to do so does not seem appropriate in a democratic society. The proper function of government is to provide learners with many forms of good education so that a person can choose how he or she learns in accordance with individual needs, interests and available time. If it is accepted that education forms the basis of national development, then the most valuable resource is man and the quality of life in a country depends on the education of its citizens. Development will not be successful if education is not properly planned.

The government has now recognised the importance of rural development and is determined to make it a success. The four principal agencies charged with rural development are the Ministry of Agriculture, the Ministry of Public Health, the Ministry of the Interior, and the Ministry of Education. There are efforts under way to increase the voice of the villagers, to strengthen administrative structures at local levels and generally to decentralize administration. All of these have contributed to the creation of a development atmosphere which permeates rural and urban areas alike.

Development and literacy go hand in hand. Literacy needs are not only complemented but also spurred on by development efforts. The latter provide not only the impetus and the rationale but also give meaning to literacy programmes, making development the single most appropriate strategy for post-literacy and continuing education.

Chapter 6

LEARNING STRATEGIES FOR LITERACY FOLLOW-UP AND COMPLEMENTARY EDUCATION IN THE CONTEXT OF LIFELONG EDUCATION IN VIETNAM

by

Le Son

INTRODUCTION

Under earlier regimes, Vietnam was both economically underdeveloped and educationally backward with over 90 per cent of the population illiterate. After more than three decades of persistent efforts, illiteracy was fundamentally eliminated in 1978, with over 90 per cent of the population having been made literate.

A notable feature of the literacy campaign in Vietnam was that it was conducted almost parallel with the wars for national liberation. It was only a few years after the total victory of the struggles for national independence and reunification that literacy was achieved.

Already at the time when literacy was still being conducted throughout the country, post-literacy learning for working people was introduced with the intention of practising lifelong study among the entire people. The motto "after literacy comes Complementary Education" was aimed at achieving lifelong education. However, Complementary Education (i.e. post-literacy education) could develop vigorously only during the periods of relative peace and in places far from the battle fronts.

Looking back on the last 30 years, the Vietnamese literacy and Complementary Education (C.E.) workers are happy to see that it has brought about practical benefits for the working people and has made a modest but worthy contribution to national independence and reunification.

The major task now is to engage in post-war national reconstruction and economic development and to improve the people's living conditions whilst at the same time remaining vigilant with respect to national defence. Post-literacy adult education in Vietnam is devoted to serve this policy and to help bring about national prosperity.

This case study is aimed at giving an introduction to the main issues of post-literacy education and providing an in-depth study of C.E. curricula in Vietnam.

1. BACKGROUND AND CONTEXT

1.1 General Features of Vietnam

Geography

Vietnam is located in Southeast Asia, with an area of over 320,000 square kilometers and a population of over 50 million. The country is at the cross-roads of extremely important sea routes between Asia and Africa, Oceania and America. For thousands of years it has been the rendezvous of ancient civilisations - Indian, Chinese and South Asian - and over the past few centuries it has been subjected to influences of modern European civilisation.

History

The Vietnamese are the descendants of an ancient race in South Asia with distant blood kinships first with the Australoids, then with the Indonesians, and most recently, several millenia ago, with the Southern Mongoloids. Vietnamese archaeology over the past few decades has shown that the ancient Vietnamese inhabited this land for tens of thousands of years, through the Paleolithic and the Neolithic to the Bronze and Iron Age, as a people with a very distinct and ancient national culture. However, from the beginning of the Christian era, Vietnam with its then meagre population of just over one million was subject to foreign domination for more than nine centuries. The Vietnamese finally won back national independence and maintained it for almost the next nine centuries. By the second half of the 19th century, Vietnam fell victim to Western imperialism and was a colony of three western countries in succession - until 1975, when she regained full national independence and reunification.

During the entire period of colonisation, the Vietnamese had to fight constantly against their enemies' plans of assimilation. As a result, they have preserved their own national culture and have at the same time selectively incorporated some of the merits of foreign cultures.

Politics

In 1945, under the leadership of President Ho Chi Minh, Vietnam became a Democratic Republic founded on the basic principle "All for national independence, all for the people's

happiness". Since 1976, after final victory throughout the country, Vietnam has been marching along the socialist path that leads to the grand goal of a life of peace and plenty for the entire people.

Economy

Until now, the economy of Vietnam has been predominantly agricultural. Its natural resources are rich but unexploited. Most of the material foundations - schools, hospitals, dams and dikes, historical vestiges, etc. - were destroyed or badly damaged by the 30 years of war. Since the achievement of total national independence and reunification, the Vietnamese government has made tremendous efforts to restore the economy, develop industry, improve agricultural production, and ameliorate the people's living conditions. However, at present the standard of living still ranks low among the developing nations.

Population, Language and Religion

The population of Vietnam is over 50 million, with a growth rate of about 2.7 per cent. The majority live in the plains and the midlands, and a minority inhabit the mountainous regions. The townspeople make up about 7 million. The 53 ethnic minority groups account for 10 per cent of the total population, inhabiting the high plateaux and the jungles.

The official language for the whole country is Vietnamese. However, each ethnic minority has its own language.

The religious community in Vietnam is composed of Buddhism, Catholicism, Mohammedanism and some other religious sects. A majority of the believers are Buddhists and Catholics. However, most people are non-believers.

1.2 Educational System

The educational system of the Socialist Republic of Vietnam is composed of three major sectors:

- General Education, administered and monitored by the Ministry of Education;
- Higher and Secondary Technical Education, administered and monitored by the Ministry of Higher and Secondary Technical Education; and

- Job-Training, administered and monitored by the General Department for Job-Training.

The General Education sector itself consists of three services: nursery education; general education for children and teenagers; and general adult education.

To train teachers for General Education, there are teacher-training schools for each level. The total number of teachers is about half a million.

Today, the total enrolment of school children in General Education is about 13 million. Nearly 1 million adult learners, together with students at teacher-training schools and universities, bring the country's total enrolment up to 15 million, which means that an average of one out of every three to five people is attending school.

Vietnamese education has been developing very rapidly. In the past, there were only three senior secondary schools in all of Vietnam, twelve junior secondary schools, and only one full primary school in each district. At present, in both the plains and midlands, every village has a basic school (primary and junior secondary) with an enrolment of thousands of pupils, and every district has two to three senior secondary schools. That is not to mention the hundreds of first-, second- and third-level schools for adults.

Thanks to the rapid expansion of General Education, the educational level of the people - first and foremost of the young people - has quickly been improved. While in the first war of resistance (1946-1954) the army was composed mostly of young peasant neo-literates or even illiterates, in the second war of resistance (1960-1975) almost all the soldiers were young people with secondary education, who took in modern technology very quickly.

However, this rapid development has caused great difficulties due to the lack of material means to match the improvement in the quality of teaching. This is a serious defect that the Vietnamese education is seeking to overcome.

1.3 Literacy Situation

In 1945, when the Revolution was victorious and the people seized power, 15 million out of the total population of over 20 million in the 12-to-50-year-old age bracket were unable to read and write. Overall the rate of illiteracy was over 90 per cent (i.e., including the young and the old.)

At that time, the Vietnamese government made the elimination of illiteracy one of its major policies. Since then, literacy campaigns have been launched one after the other, even during wartime. In 1954 the northern half of the country was totally liberated, and by 1959 over 90 per cent of the northern population had become literate.

In 1975 the southern half was liberated with a then total of more than 1.5 million illiterates. Immediately a new literacy campaign was launched, and as a result full literacy was achieved by 1978. From then on, illiteracy has been viewed as fundamentally eliminated. The remaining illiterates, who make up less than 10 per cent of the total population, are mostly to be found in the areas of the ethnic minorities and in the mountainous regions.

Literacy in Vietnam, as mentioned above, is in the initial phase, i.e., the phase of reading and writing the mother tongue. The Vietnamese language is predominantly monosyllabic, each syllable being a meaningful word. The Vietnamese script has been latinised, with Roman letters incorporated into syllables or words in a rational and simple way, easy to learn and to remember.

Although it was easy to learn and remember by the colonialist methods of teaching and learning, before the Revolution learners had to spend nearly a year learning to read and write. Since the Revolution in 1945, instructors and teachers have created new methods of teaching and learning and have been able to reduce the duration first to six months and then to three months. The short duration is also an important factor that has greatly motivated the illiterates to attend classes.

An evaluation of the results of literacy work in Vietnam shows the following to be the keys to success:

- the clear-sighted and resolute leadership of the Government and administration at all levels;

- the very active participation of the learners, which turned literacy into a mass movement;

- a very strong and effective system of Literacy Steering Committees;

- the mobile, flexible, and creative guidance and administration of the literacy services; and

- the great zeal, creativeness, and sacrifices made by the large army of revolutionary young participants as instructors, motivators, and organisers.

The success of literacy education in Vietnam results from all these efforts. In the final analysis, however, literacy is but the first rung of the cultural ladder. Literacy is not yet firmly established, and the general educational background still has to be greatly improved.

With a view to consolidating the working people's literacy and supplementing basic knowledge of life and production, Vietnamese adult education put forward early on the sloqan: "After literacy comes Complementary Education". Hence, post-literacy learning in Vietnam is termed "Complementary Education", which is an expression for lifelong education for adults. At present, in the context of educational reforms in Vietnam, it bears the name of "General Adult Education".

2. GENERAL ISSUES

2.1 Policy Matters

As soon as the northern half of the country had achieved fundamental literacy, the Third Party National Congress (1960) formed the resolution of "considering Complementary Education as a task of prime importance in educational work". Resolution No. 93 of the Central Secretariat also clearly defined the significance, guiding principles, objectives, organisation, and measures for Complementary Education. In 1965 the Party General Committee issued its Directive No. 97 to further promote Complementary Education. Following Directive No. 97, the Vietnamese Government promulgated specific statutes and policies on Complementary Education, such as statutes for Complementary Education instructors and learners, the formation of Complementary Education schools for ethnic young people, the promotion of the emulation movement for Complementary Education advanced units, etc. This Directive stated that:

> "In pushing ahead the whole revolutionary cause, Complementary Education should be regarded as more urgent than before and should enter into a new period of development ... It is necessary to train and to retrain skilled workers and technical co-operative members on a large scale and at the same time to train the large army of primary and junior school-leavers as shock troops on the productive and on the fighting fronts, while reserving forces for the training of future cadres. It is also urgent to heighten the people's revolutionary will, to raise labour productivity, and to improve their cultural living conditions ... Complementary Education has been playing a vital role in the past and at present, as well as for years to come, therefore our Party has considered it as a task of prime importance in educational work."

It is clear, then, that the Party and Government of Vietnam have long attached great importance to Complementary Education and have viewed it as a task of prime importance in educational work aimed at improving the people's cultural background. First of all, improvement is needed among the cadres and young people in order to promote production, strengthen national defence, and conduct large-scale training of cadres.

Between 1960 and 1975 the people in the North had to develop production, resist enemy air raids and send reinforcements to the South - all at the same time. Hence the Complementary Education movement went through ups and downs. Generally speaking, however, the Complementary Education movement brought practical benefits by helping to train hundreds of thousands of youths and working people for tasks which promoted production and brought ultimate victory. In many instances, even during heavy bombing raids people kept digging trenches and shelters in order to protect themselves from the bombardments and to have places for rest and for Complementary Education activities.

In 1975, after the total liberation of the South, the Party Central Committee immediately issued a document on Complementary Education work, Directive No. 221, which clearly pointed out that "for the time being, literacy and Complementary Education should be regarded as the task of prime importance of educational work in the South". The directive called for the definitive elimination of illiteracy within a few years. It also called for greater care on the part of the educational service, with the intention of improving the educational level of the Southern cadres, who had been so engaged in the arduous battles that they could neither afford the time nor create the necessary conditions for learning.

At the end of 1981, the Party Central Committee issued Directive No. 115 on Complementary Education of the cadres and employees. This foresaw a five- to ten-year span in which to raise the educational standards of village cadres to second level, those of district and provincial cadres to third level, and those of key cadres to university level.

Along with Complementary Education of the cadres and employees, the Vietnamese Party and Government have been advocating the development of Complementary Education among the working people, first, and foremost, by the universalisation of first level education among the people in the plains and the midlands, later by the attainment of literacy among the ethnic minorities, and finally by the formation of specific-topic courses in science and technology that would enable all working people to make practical contributions to promoting industrial and agricultural production.

For the time being, ten provinces and towns (out of a total of 30) in the plains and midlands of the North have achieved the universalisation of first level education. The formation of specific-topic courses is now the subject of an in-depth study and such courses have already been successfully started in several provinces. Attendance of these courses by ethnic groups is facing some difficulties at present. However, they are being tested further in some mountainous provinces and developed in some others.

2.2 Target Groups

The Complementary Education (C.E.) workers are all working people. The C.E. target population does not include the old, the very young, the children and teenagers attending General Education schools, and the youth attending universities and colleges or technical and vocational secondary schools.

C.E. target groups are classified into three categories: cadres and employees; young people; and working people. The first category is subdivided into two groups (young and middle-aged cadres and employees), while the second category is subdivided into elites (in production and fighting) and common youth. Concerning the third category, due attention should be paid to their occupations and localities.

The priority target groups of C.E. work, however, are elite cadres, employees and youth. This is due to the fact that the Vietnamese Revolution was conducted by the working masses. In former regimes they used to be illiterate, whereas today, occupying certain positions in the state machinery, they should have an improved educational background. As for elite youth, they will in time succeed the veteran revolutionaries and should have high educational standards to give lasting service to the revolution.

At a time when there is a shortage of materials and instructors, importance should be attached to priority target groups. However, in a certain period or locality, priority target groups may be variously conceived. In the mountainous areas for instance, the priority target group should be the ethnic cadres and youths. In times of war, when men had to go to the front, women who took their places defending the rear had to improve their educational background in order to do their jobs, hence the appearance of the "three-responsibilities" courses.

It is also due to the above-mentioned reason that when dealing with C.E. target groups, Directive No. 97 stated: "Complementary Education target groups are cadres, party members, labour youth union members, young workers and farmers, school-leavers joining production, and the broad masses of working people". The directive laid emphasis on elite cadres, party members and youth, but also said that "women with their 'three-responsibilities' movement play an all the more important role in production and fighting, therefore special attention should be paid to improving their educational background".

2.3 Curriculum Objectives

As outlined above, the target groups of the literacy follow-up (post-literacy Complementary Education) courses are classified into different categories. Accordingly, C.E. curricula in Vietnam are also diversified in conformity with the needs of each category. The following are general outlines of a few major curricula:

First-Level Curricula

For the broad masses of the working people, the curriculum is aimed at consolidating their reading and writing skills, thus ensuring a firm literacy. At the same time, it is meant to provide the learners with some practical instruction on production and life-related issues.

For cadres, employees and young people, the curriculum not only assumes the same functions as above, it also helps the learners to carry on their studies at the second level. This is part of the Government's policy of raising the educational standards of all village cadres and young people to the second level.

Second-Level Curricula

The second-level curriculum for young people, cadres, and government employees up to 35 years of age is aimed at providing the learners with fundamental and practical instruction that they can apply in their daily life and production. It also serves as a basis for their further studies at the third level, since all young cadres and youth are requested to complete the third level under the Government's C.E. policy.

The second-level curriculum for middle-aged cadres and employees over 35 years old is meant to provide them with very simplified and practical instruction consisting of fewer periods. Since the members of this target group are known to be very busy with their work and to be less receptive, they are not required to continue learning at the third level.

Curriculum for Post-Literacy Specific-Topic Courses

This curriculum is designed to provide practical instruction on issues related to the actual life and production of the broad masses of the people - first and foremost the farmers who have finished the universal first-level curriculum. However, those who have not finished it may also attend these specific-topic courses. The curriculum is composed of different topics, each one consisting of one lecture for one session or of a few lectures for several sessions. The learners may take notes, or just listen to the lectures, which are accompanied by written texts that are often illustrated by pictures or slides.

Third-Level Curricula

The third-level curriculum for young cadres, employees and youth is meant to provide them with scientific-technological instruction and to improve their ability to apply it in work and production as a basis for further studies at universities, colleges, or technical secondary schools.

The third-level curriculum for middle-aged cadres and employees is aimed at instruction for the improvement of their practical capabilities; it does not serve as a basis for further study at universities.

This is only a general introduction to the different types of C.E. curricula in Vietnam. Curricula and their execution will be discussed in greater detail in Part 3 of this paper (Specific Techniques).

2.4 Methodological Approach

Until recently, adult education in Vietnam was conducted mostly during war time, when there was little contact to the outside world. As a result, over the past years viewpoints and methods in lifelong education have been formulated creatively on the basis of practical experience.

Current C.E. methods are similar to those of the General Education for children, necessitating such factors as schoolrooms, instructors, textbooks, stationery, teaching aids and laboratory facilities. The teaching methods include lectures and explanations, drilling, testing, conducting experiments, etc. Evaluation is carried out by means of class tests, end-of-course exams, and finals.

In recent years, thanks to their increased contacts with specialists in the outside world, Vietnamese lifelong adult education workers have learned a lot from the experiences of other countries in the areas of nonformal and formal education. The Research Commission and the Department for Complementary Education have exchanged information on this problem and have reviewed and evaluated the different forms of lifelong study in Vietnam and in other parts of the world. From this analysis the following conclusions were drawn:

- The viewpoints, forms and methods of adult education in Vietnam have been influenced to a large extent by those of formal education. However, for the target groups of young cadres and youth, they have proven to be appropriate and have yielded tremendous results. Therefore, for these target groups they should be improved and consolidated.

- For the middle-aged cadres, employees and working people at large, informal and nonformal approaches have been found to be the most suitable. Middle-aged learners may attend formal education courses, but syllabuses and methods of such courses should be nonformal. It has been found more effective, accommodating and easier for these learners to take in practical instruction.

Thanks to this review and evaluation, specific topic courses for farmers have been developed in recent years as a form of instruction with a very concise and practical syllabus for middle-aged village and co-operative cadres. In addition, for the past few years the dissemination of scientific instruction on many aspects of life and production via television and radio broadcasts has become richer and more regular. While people have become interested in learning by TV and radio lessons, the use of these learning strategies is still very limited because of the lack of adequate material resources.

3. COMPLEMENTARY EDUCATION: SPECIFIC TECHNIQUES

As was implied in the previous discussion, literacy training in Vietnam is not an end in itself. It is rather the first step towards a continuing process of mass education. In order to further the efforts of literacy and mass education, a parallel system of formal and nonformal education, called Complementary Education (C.E.), has been evolved. In the present context C.E. is a specific form of post-literacy and continuing education which provides a systematic yet flexible learning environment for neo-literates. The programme is flexible since it may be full-time or part-time, can be arranged in a formal classroom as well as in a factory situation and in accordance with the learners' initial level of education. Similarly, it includes a whole range of learners from different age groups who are occupied in a variety of professions. Some examples of these programmes are presented in the following pages.

3.1 Full-Time C.E. Schools

a. Second-level schools for middle-aged cadres and employees

Aims

The main purpose is to study science and technology as a basis for more effective work and for further studies at the C.E. third level.

Participants

The learners include about 150-200 pupils recruited from the village and district cadres 35 years old and above with fairly slow receptivity. The classes for these learners are arranged near the district towns, or possibly in two or three different inter-village locations, accessible to the village cadres.

Curriculum

Subjects	Periods	Subjects	Periods
General Vietnamese	275	Mathematics	426
History	28	Physics	126
Geography	45	Chemistry	65
Politics	64	Biology	76
Economic Management	56	Farming Techniques	112

There are textbooks on all these subjects and reference books on technology and farming.

Teaching and learning process

The major instructional technique consists in lectures and explanations, supplemented by experiments in courses like physics, chemistry and biology. Participants do group and individual study, as well as extra library reading on work and production. For the purpose of practical experience, one-week visits are often organised to a few villages and co-operatives with fine records. As part of extra-curricular activities, sports, games, films and other forms of entertainment are arranged at free times.

Funds

Learners on the government payroll cover their own food costs; village cadres are given scholarships. Other expenses are covered by the government.

Evaluation

This type of school has been developing for nearly 30 years and has brought about tremendous results by providing training and retraining to hundreds of thousands of village and district cadres. At present, there are very few of them in the Northern plains, but they are proving very useful and are expanding in the newly-liberated areas in the South and in the mountainous regions.

Obstacles

The biggest obstacles are poor material resources, a shortage of teaching aids, and a lack of laboratory facilities.

b. Second- and third-level C.E. schools for young people

Aims

The main goal is to train future cadres and employees of about 30 years of age - young workers and farmers with excellent records in work, production and military service. The schools cater for 300 to 500 learners on average (1,000 learners in some cases) and are located near a provincial town, one school for each province.

Curriculum

Subjects	Periods	Subjects	Periods
General Vietnamese	300	Mathematics	374
History	55	Physics	148
Geography	72	Chemistry	80
Politics	72	Biology	76
Economic Management	56	Farming Techniques	192

The course work for the second-level takes 2 years and that for the third-level 3 years, the curriculum of the latter being similar to that of third-level General Education.

Teaching and learning process

The main instruction techniques are lectures with explanations, as well as demonstration by experiments in physics, chemistry and biology. The learners attend lectures, do individual and group study, and use the library. Textbooks and reference books are made available as instructional aids. Additionally, various types of extra-curricular activities are organised, such as cultural activities, games and sports, films, etc.

Funds

Learners who are cadres on the government payroll receive their full salaries; others are granted full scholarships. Further expenses are covered by the government.

Evaluation

This type of school has been growing for nearly 30 years and has made effective contributions to training a large brigade

of young cadres for the revolution. Many of today's scientific and political cadres have graduated from these schools and gone on to further studies at universities and colleges, either at home or in other socialist countries.

Obstacles

The major difficulties are caused by a lack of material resources, in spite of the Government's efforts to prepare and distribute sufficient materials to all locations.

c. Third-level C.E. schools for middle-aged cadres

Aims

This type of school is meant exclusively for cadres in the 40 to 50-year age bracket who need higher instruction in order to be able to work more effectively but do not require university or college education. The curriculum is restricted to the most essential aspects of the subjects involved with minimal attention being paid to difficult theories.

Curriculum

Subjects	Periods	Subjects	Periods
Literature	150	Physics	50
History	60	Chemistry	50
Geography	50	Genetics and improvement of breeds and seeds	60
Applied Mathematics	120		

Operational aspects

A similar approach as in other types of C.E. school is followed in teaching-learning methods, extra-curricular activities and funding.

Evaluation

Thanks to this type of school, many of the revolutionary cadres who came from workers', peasants', or illiterate families are now intellectually capable of undertaking responsible jobs at all levels of the state apparatus.

3.2 Part-Time C.E. Schools

Part-time C.E. schools in Vietnam are in fact after-work schools, i.e., their sessions are held mostly at noon or in the evenings. Those for cadres and employees may, however, when necessary, be held in the afternoon several times a week or for three to four full days a month, with official leave for those cadres who are always on the move.

a. Schools for the universalisation of first-level education

Aims

The main goal is to further consolidate the learners' skills in reading, writing and arithmetic and to give them practical instruction relating to the living environment and production. Therefore, those who are capable enough and wish later to carry on further studies at the second level (mostly village cadres) are supplied with the "part of perfection" curriculum as preparation for the second level.

Participants

The learners include all literate working people up to 45 years of age for men and 40 years for women, as well as all village and co-operative cadres who have not finished the first level.

Curriculum

Subjects	Period	Duration
- Universalisation Grade		36 weeks (10 periods per week)
Vietnamese	210	
Arithmetic	150	
- Perfection Grade (among others the core courses include):		50 weeks (about 12 periods per week)
Vietnamese	105	
Arithmetic	105	
Popular Science	30	

Teaching-learning method

Generally the classes are organised in the village where the learners are working. Teachers from General Education schools, as well as technical cadres in the village, are invited to do the teaching. The teachers usually give talks and explanations, whilst the learners do exercises and individual and group study.

Funds

The funds are covered by the village or the co-operative that runs the school. The Government provides full-time instructors and learning materials. Learners also make some financial contributions for part-time instructors.

Obstacles

The biggest difficulty is the low motivation of learners to attend classes, since after achieving literacy (phase one), many of them regard their education as being completed. In order to motivate more and more people to attend classes, it is necessary to launch a movement for the universalisation of first level education in all provinces.

b. Second-level C.E. schools for middle-aged cadres

Aims

The purpose is to provide the learners with the instruction they need to fulfil their current tasks. This type of school now operates only in the newly-liberated South.

Participants

Village cadres of 35 years and above who remained illiterate due to their participation in the wars of liberation and who now have the leading positions in their villages.

Curriculum

Subjects	Periods	Duration
Vietnamese practice	90	About 35 weeks (12 periods a week)
Biology of farming techniques	37	
Applied mathematics	85	
Physics (special subject)	36	
Geography (special subject)	30	

Teaching and learning process

The teachers from General Education schools and technical cadres of the villages are invited to do the instructing. They provide explanations, which are supplemented with hard drilling, visual aids such as pictures, maps, and experiments in the laboratories of village General Education schools. Learners do homework (especially exercises in the language Vietnamese and in applied mathematics) and prepare reports, talks, etc. These courses are run in the villages for 35 weeks, with 8 periods per week. Special instructional materials are provided for the programmes.

Funds

The Government provides instructors and materials. The villages operate their schools, and the learners cover their own daily expenses.

Evaluation

After many attempts, this target group has been found to be receptive only to very concise and practical instructions. If they were to follow the curricula for young people, it would be a total failure. Thanks to this appropriate curriculum, a majority of meritorious cadres of the wars of resistance can now continue to undertake responsible tasks in their villages.

c. Second-level work-and-study C.E. schools for rural youth

Aims

A considerable number of young people in the villages who have finished only the first level of General Education and have entered the working world have found many gaps in their previous instruction that need to be eliminated. In order to help them apply what they have learned in actual production processes, the village and the co-operative should provide them with some land and farm tools. Their school may thus, in the long run, be turned into a technical centre to render help to the co-operative by finding new varieties of rice seeds, studying the effects of fertilizers, undertaking soil irrigation for the co-operative, etc. In return for this, the co-operative should allot proper places of work to the learners. This type of school therefore bears the name "work-and-study school".

Participants

The learners include all young people who have finished the entire first level and have joined in the production work in the villages. For these young learners classes are organised in the villages themselves in order to save time and make the programme more effective.

Curriculum

The curriculum and materials are the same as for the above mentioned full-time second-level C.E. schools for young people. However, the longer duration of 4 years is due to the fact that the learners must go to class in addition to doing manual work every day.

Teaching-learning method

The instructors give explanations emphasising practical application, help the learners do their practice work in the rice paddies, and conduct studies together with the learners concerning production problems of the co-operatives. Accordingly, the learners listen to explanations, conduct individual and group studies, and pay attention to practising in actual production what has been taught in class. Teachers from General Education schools and farming-technique workers from the co-operatives are invited to run the classes. Some cultural and extra-curricular activities are also organised for the learners.

Productive labour

In this type of school, productive labour is one of the yardsticks by which to evaluate the learners' efforts in their studies. They should work under the guiding principle of "work with discipline, good technique and high productivity", because hard-working learners are likely to become good labourers in the village and the co-operative.

Funds

The villages and the co-operatives supply instructional materials, provide land, and cover the instructors' stipends. The learners are provided work opportunities by the co-operative for their manual work and cover their own food costs. The Government provides managerial cadres, including full-time instructors, and materials for teaching and learning.

Evaluation

This type of school has been very successful in providing effective service to the functioning of production in the co-operatives. Many of these schools have helped to settle technical problems related to production. Therefore, the leaders of districts, villages and co-operatives have supported the continued operation of these schools.

Obstacles

For the time being, numerous villages owe the universalisation of second-level education of their young people to the operation of these schools, and they wish to help them carry on further studies at the third level, but the Government fails to meet their demands for instructors.

d. Second-level C.E. schools operated by enterprises

Aims

The goal is to provide cultural and technical second-level instruction to the staff and workers of enterprises in the urban and industrial areas, with the intention of helping the workers to gain a deeper knowledge of the techniques that they are applying in production.

Participants

The learners include the office staff and workers from enterprises who have accomplished first-level education. Classes for these learners are arranged in the offices and the enterprises themselves generally for 4 years, with 6 periods per week. The total duration may be shortened if the number of periods per week is increased.

Curriculum

Subjects	Periods	Subjects	Periods
Vietnamese	202	Mathematics	374
History	28	Physics	148
Geography	45	Chemistry	80
Physiology	32	Industrial Technology	192

Textbooks and reference books on the above subjects are used as instructional materials. However, the enterprises are put in charge of the technology curriculum.

Teaching-learning method

These include activities such as giving explanations in reference to the actual production in the enterprise, as well as conducting experiments and tests (all enterprises are equipped with laboratories). The participants are expected to listen to explanations, do individual study, homework and work practice. The educational service provides instructors for teaching fundamental subjects. However, the enterprises are expected to assist in the teaching of technology by sending their own engineers and technicians as instructors.

Funds

The enterprises provide school rooms and technical instructors. The educational service provides full-time instructors and instructors for fundamental subjects. Payment for part-time instructors is covered by tuition fees from the learners.

Obstacles

A difficulty for this type of school is shift work, which is necessary in order to accommodate the workers' working hours.

A large number of classes have to be offered, each for a small group of workers. As a result, the instructors have to teach the same lesson many times over. Another difficulty is that each enterprise has its own technical requirements. The adult education programme therefore cannot provide uniform instruction and materials on industrial technology in general; this task depends to a large extent on the enterprises themselves.

e. Third-level C.E. schools for cadres, employees and young people

A majority of young cadres, employees and youth wish to carry on their studies at the third level in order to be able to attend courses on technology. This has led to the formation of part-time third-level C.E. schools in the urban areas. Due to lack of time and to a shortage of instructors, their curriculum is composed of only four subjects, viz. literature, mathematics, physics and chemistry. The learners have to study other subjects on their own.

Among the learners there are some middle-aged cadres who now hold leading and managerial positions in the offices and enterprises but have not finished the third level and do not have the time to attend a full-time C.E. school. Those who are receptive to new instruction can attend the same schools as the young people. Those who wish to follow a more concise and practical syllabus can attend courses at the full-time third-level C.E. schools mentioned above. For them, however, the duration of study has to be extended to two years. They may enter any field of study.

3.3 Specific-Topic Nonformal Education

Aims

In the rural areas, farmers who have finished the first level of universalised education often wish to continue their learning. The specific-topic courses are aimed at providing them with additional instruction on production and environment.

Participants

These include the farmers who have already finished the first level, those who have not done so for some reason or other, and second level graduates who wish to attend these courses. The classes are held in the private home of a co-opera-

tive member or as arranged by the particular production team.

Curriculum

There are three types of subject matter: on living conditions, on production, and on improvement of general understanding.

The instruction is arranged into topics. Each topic may be covered in from one to three sessions. Some general topics are available in print for use throughout the country, but particular localities may also have certain specific topics in accordance with local conditions. The materials are printed by the centre and are arranged in volumes of 10 topics each. The first volume of the series includes, for instance, the following topics:

- How to increase the rice yields;
- On the sweet potato;
- On the soya bean;
- Hog-breeding;
- Sow-breeding;
- Some calculations on distribution in the co-operative;
- Family planning;
- Prophylactic measures against parasites;
- Birth control;
- Electric shock: precautions and first aid;
- Improving the cooking stove;
- Our rich and beautiful land.

Scheduling

Availing of the farmers' production intervals (e.g., after the planting season or after the harvest), 2 to 3 sessions per week are held of 1 1/2 to 2 hours each, at noon or in the

evenings. Coverage of 30 topics is sufficient for one year. It is planned to print a total of 100 topics for 3 years' use.

Teaching-learning method

Teachers from General Education schools, village technicians, and young people with third-level education participate in instruction. The teaching and learning methods include lectures and discussions with the learners. It is necessary to use pictures, films or slides for illustration. It is advisable to present the matter at the learners' level of understanding in a lively, attractive and intelligible manner. Similarly the learners are expected to listen to the presentation with or without taking notes, actively participate in the discussion, and read the articles. Tests are administered after every ten lectures in order to evaluate results.

Funds

The Government takes charge of compiling and printing the materials. The provinces and districts guide the villages in developing the courses. The co-operatives and/or the learners make financial contributions as honorariums for the instructors.

Evaluation

As far as Vietnam is concerned, specific-topic nonformal courses constitute a new approach and a new form of instruction. Pilot projects conducted over the past two years in some villages have revealed that the results are quite satisfactory. The learners attend the courses with keen interest, since they find them intelligible and practical, especially if they feel some "freedom" in attendance. It is planned to introduce these courses throughout the country; they may even be extended to cadres and employees who have finished second-level education.

Obstacles

These specific-topic courses can succeed only when pictures, films, slides, etc. are used for illustration; however, there is a great shortage of these visual aids.

Apart from this, the Vietnamese radio and television services often have broadcasts on very practical problems of science and technology, e.g., on rearing fish, on the castor-oil plant, the mulberry and the silkworm, on prophylactic

measures against summer diseases, on how to use antibiotics, on the contraceptive ring, etc. The 3 to 4 broadcasts per week on these and similar topics have attracted the interest of the public. Unfortunately, however, the poor living conditions have seriously limited their effect, especially in the rural and the mountainous areas.

3.4 Evening Classes for Illiterate Children

Aims

Despite government efforts to develop General Education, some children refuse to attend school or drop out. In order to achieve rapid universalisation of first-level education, as well as overall literacy, the Vietnamese educational service operates evening classes for these young illiterates. Those who are judged capable of following the General Education classes are granted permission to return to them.

Operational Aspects

The learners of these classes include all school-age children who have dropped out of first level or have refused to go to school. Depending on the local situation, classes are organised in the hamlets, streets, or sub-districts. Their duration is 3 to 4 months for each form with about 3 evenings per week. The curriculum used in these classes is the same as for General Education schools, but more concise and with more emphasis laid on the two main subjects - Vietnamese and arithmetic calculation. Teaching and learning methods are also similar to those in the General Education schools, with somewhat more emphasis on cultural activities in order to give the children more encouragement in their learning. The instructors for these classes are recruited from teachers of General Education schools, C.E. instructors and literate young people. The instructional materials are compiled, printed and distributed by the educational offices of the provinces and cities.

Funds

The villages and urban sub-districts, the first- and second-level General Education schools, and C.E. instructors are expected to organise these courses jointly. Expenses for textbooks, stationery, and stipends for instructors are covered partly by the villages and the sub-districts and partly by voluntary contributions from individuals.

Obstacles

The main difficulty is motivating all children to attend these classes. The motivators have to work with their parents first and help them in obtaining books, paper and pens, and sometimes even clothing.

3.5 C.E. Schools and Classes in the Ethnic-Minority Areas

a. Official-language courses

Aims

There are 54 different ethnic minorities in Vietnam. Although they have their own mother tongues, they use Vietnamese as a lingua franca in the economic, cultural, political and social spheres. The Vietnamese Government therefore has advocated literacy and Complementary Education in the Vietnamese language for these groups by offering official-language courses in the ethnic areas.

Participants

The learners include all ethnic people in the 12 to 50-year age bracket; the main target groups, however, are cadres, party members and youths. Since the ethnic minorities generally live in very rugged territory, the classes have to be brought to the learners' hamlets.

Curriculum

A special curriculum has been prepared for the ethnic learners from ABC, including special textbooks. The complete set is composed of four books with about 160 lessons, to be covered in four terms of 5 months each, i.e., within two years.

Learning-teaching

Until recently, ethnic school-children had to use the same textbooks as all the other children in the country, although these textbooks are only suitable for Vietnamese pupils (the Vietnamese make up more than 90 per cent of the population). As a result, many ethnic children found it very difficult to use these textbooks. Hence, their large number of dropouts tremendously increased the already large number of illiterates in the mountainous regions.

For a decade now, two adult-education cadres of the C.E. Department, Messrs. Pham Toan and Nguyen Truong, have carried on an in-depth field study. Braving all the difficulties and hardships of the mountainous regions, they have pioneered a new method of teaching Vietnamese as a lingua franca to the ethnic learners and have written the four special textbooks mentioned above.

This method is based on the principle that the ethnic minorities learn Vietnamese as a second language. Hence, it is necessary to apply the principles and techniques of teaching and learning a "foreign language". Great emphasis is laid on speech drills and on an integrated approach to speaking, reading and writing on the basis of speech activities. Attention is paid to teaching pronunciation, vocabulary and grammar in a more practical than theoretical manner, with the aid of pictures for illustration. All vocabulary pertaining to the living environment and production in the mountainous regions is included in the texts of the lingua franca.

Instructors

Student-teachers from the teacher-training schools, teachers from local General Education schools, and literate young people eager to serve the ethnic minorities are all involved.

Before going to the ethnic areas to teach, the instructors are trained in teaching Vietnamese as lingua franca to the ethnic and the ethnic-language-speaking learners. For the period of their teaching assignment they are given priority in receiving warm clothes, cotton blankets, mosquito-nets, etc., as well as financial bonuses in addition to their salaries. The time limit for instructors working in the ethnic areas is 4 years for men and 3 years for women.

Funds

All expenses are covered by the provincial budgets. The centre provides help by training instructors in the teacher-training schools, and by funding the printing of instructional materials, textbooks, etc.

Evaluation

Three-year pilot projects in one mountainous province have yielded very encouraging results. After two years of instruction,

all the young C.E. learners were able to speak, read and write Vietnamese as the lingua franca with such fluency that they are not likely to relapse into illiteracy. In addition, they appeared quite capable of meeting all requirements for communication with members of the Vietnamese majority and for undertaking any task in their own hamlets. Encouraged by these results, the educational service of Vietnam is planning to extend this method of teaching Vietnamese as the lingua franca to all ethnic-minority provinces.

Obstacles

The biggest difficulty remains that of funding, since a large number of instructors must be maintained for a widespread network of classes in the remote hamlets.

b. Full-time second-level C.E. schools for training and re-training ethnic cadres and employees

Aims

In the ethnic areas there is often a great shortage of cadres and employees, due to the generally poor educational background. Well conscious of this, the Vietnamese Government has advocated for many years now that each district should operate a full-time second-level C.E. school for ethnic cadres and young people in order to train village and district cadres for the ethnic regions - especially from an area near a district town with fertile soil for cultivation and animal husbandry. Almost all the mountainous provinces have now established C.E. schools for young people belonging to ethnic monorities.

Participants

The learners include mainly young and receptive cadres of the villages and districts. The enrolment may also include ethnic young people with virtuous qualities, good production and military records, and first-level education. Even those who have not finished the first level may be enrolled, since during the course of studies there is provision for a remedial course.

Curriculum

This is similar to that of the full-time second-level C.E. school for young cadres and youth as mentioned above, with

certain modifications for the ethnic participants; for example, Vietnamese is taught as the lingua franca in the subject of literature, and forestry techniques are included in agricultural instruction.

Work-study programme

Given favourable production conditions, many of these schools have successfully combined theoretical studies and productive labour and are turning out products such as rice, cassava, corn, potatoes, hogs and chickens. A number of schools have been built by the instructors and learners themselves. Productive labour has really supplemented theoretical study, by combining study with practice, which produces beneficial effects on ideological education and improves living conditions. Some schools have achieved production rates which have enabled them to cover part of their own expenses, thus reducing state expenditures.

Funds

All expenses of these schools are covered by the mountainous provinces themselves. The Ministry of Education bears the cost of training instructors and publishing textbooks. Some of these schools are able to cover part of their expenses through their own production.

Evaluation

Thanks to the combination of study with manual labour, the graduates are well educated, possess good qualities, and enjoy manual work. Over the past decades, these schools have turned out tens of thousands of qualified cadres for the villages and districts of the mountainous provinces. Most of these schools, however, are located quite far away from cultural centres, and their learners are not familiar with modern life styles. Hence, there are certain limitations. Furthermore, productive labour takes up a fair amount of their time, thus reducing the time available for study. Therefore, the issue of production in these schools is now under re-consideration.

Obstacles

These schools should be equipped with more and better teaching aids, laboratory facilities and audio-visual media; however, for the time being the limited funds and materials cannot meet these demands.

4. OPERATIONAL AND METHODOLOGICAL ASPECTS

4.1 Administration and Monitoring

C.E. schools differ from General Education schools in a number of respects, e.g.:

- The learners are all adults, who are not particularly receptive to new instruction.
- Their syllabuses are strongly practice-oriented, in order to conform to production and living conditions.
- Enrolment numbers fluctuate, especially those of part-time C.E. schools.

For these reasons the administration of these schools requires more concern on the part of the agencies responsible for adult education, as well as the boards of directors of the C.E. schools.

The major areas of concern are the following:

- The teaching must be well organised. To this end, curricula and syllabuses should conform to the standards of the target groups. The teaching methods should be suitable for adults. Since the boards of directors are the direct administrators, they should be well-acquainted with curricula, syllabuses, teaching methods, etc. and should be advised by officers for teaching affairs. In addition, the instructors should form professional associations to help each other in their teaching.
- The learners' activities must also be well organised. In order to achieve this, it is first of all necessary to maintain discipline in study. Each class should have an instructor-in-charge and a student-monitor and should be divided into groups for group study.
- In full-time C.E. schools the learners' studies should be supplemented with cultural and recreational activities, and sports. At boarding schools, efforts should be made to effectively tackle the

problems of housing, food and the collective life of the residents.

- It is mandatory to achieve good results in ideological and political work, first and foremost by paying careful attention to good relations between the instructors and the learners. As most of the learners are older than their instructors, there is a possibility of a slight lack of regard for the latter on the part of the former. On the other hand, most of the instructors are recent graduates, who are young and inexperienced; hence, there is a possibility of a sense of inferiority on their part, especially in dealing with older cadres. The adult learners are also likely to be more liberal and have certain concerns that the directors and instructors should pay close attention to in order to rectify any deviations.

- Effective measures should be taken to encourage the wish to learn. Adult learners are strongly influenced by their working conditions and their family life. Therefore, they may easily drop out, especially from part-time schools and classes. As a result, the C.E. movement may fluctuate, unlike the more regular attendance at General Education schools. This, however, seems to be unavoidable. Monitoring of the teaching process is an important measure for promoting learning by such means as good arrangement and timing, clever persuasion and motivation, practical help with difficulties (as a few good instructors have done so far), and so on. Due attention should be paid to checking the learners' studies, observing their progress, and rewarding them properly.

Launching emulation movements constitutes another effective measure for motivating both instructors and learners. Schools, provinces, districts and villages should emulate each other in order to become advanced units fulfilling educational plans both in quantity and in quality. Here it is necessary to guard against hurried work of poor quality and against exaggeration of the achievements. Emulation should be conducted seriously, honestly and in a refined way.

4.2 Training and Re-training Instructors for Adult Education

Adult education differs from General Education and has its own laws of development. In our opinion, instructors have and will continue to play a major role in educational work and cannot be replaced by even the most up-to-date facilities. In adult education, instructors acquainted with the specific characteristics of adult learners are all the more important. Therefore, we hold the view that great attention should be paid to training and re-training instructors for adult education, specifically with regard to the following points:

- If possible, efforts should be made to form a separate system of instructor-training schools for adult education. In their curricula and syllabuses, besides the provision for general and scientific instruction, emphasis should be given to studying and teaching problems of adult psychology and teaching methods, as has been done in Vietnam.

- If graduates from teacher-training schools of General Education are employed in adult education, it is necessary to give them re-training courses on adult psychology and teaching methods at the very beginning of their work. Such courses might then be followed up by organising additional re-training courses for 2 to 3 weeks in the summer, which are also a good opportunity for the exchange of experiences.

- Attention should be given to policies for improving the living conditions of adult education instructors. C.E. instructors are often faced with more difficulties in their work than their counterparts in General Education. Their spirit of service, however, is very high, especially in those who are willing to work in adult education. During certain periods, e.g., in the literacy phase, they were willing to make great sacrifices and put up with all kinds of difficulties and hardships, working selflessly to accomplish their tasks. However, provision should be made for proper salaries, material necessities, citations and awards, etc., in order to maintain their zeal.

4.3 Developing Adult Education Methods

In recent years, a good deal of research has been conducted in Vietnam concerning adult learning psychology and the impact of internal and external conditions on adult education. Furthermore, tests and observations have been made to assess the memory capacity of adults in learning and to calculate the optimum division of their time for work, study and other activities. On the basis of all this, proper measures have been taken for adult education. In addition, a number of general principles of teaching methods for adults have been recommended. At present, some researchers are conducting studies on how best to teach specific subjects to adults. An institute for research on adult educational reforms has been established.

However, all this is but a modest success. Nor have we yet obtained materials on this subject from other countries. We have encountered quite a number of difficulties that remain unresolved, the education for working women, for example.

Lifelong adult education workers in Vietnam are looking forward to the exchange of views and experiences with their colleagues all over the world, and warmly hail the vital and effective role of UNESCO in this area.

5. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

This study has discussed the present educational system of Vietnam, particularly the general educational policies of the Vietnamese Government and its views on adult education, emphasising the importance of improving the entire people's educational background as one of the strategies of the revolution.

Different types of post-literacy curricula and of full-time and part-time schools for Vietnamese adults have been presented. All this implies a system of fairly diversified curricula, syllabuses and schools guided by the principle that "C.E. curricula should fit each target group and each locality". Naturally, the variety of curricula and schools often gives rise to difficulties for leadership, administration and monitoring personnel, but it satisfactorily meets the needs of the three categories of learners - viz, cadres and employees, youth, and the working people - with emphasis on the former two groups. Conciseness, simplicity and practicality characterise each type of curriculum.

This study has also included, in general terms, the experiences and viewpoints of Vietnam on the administration and monitoring of post-literacy schools, on training and re-training of instructors, and on studies of adult educational methods.

With regard to lifelong education, certain successes as well as shortcomings have been observed in Vietnam: Probably the greatest and most significant success is the attainment of first-phase literacy of over 90 per cent of the population, thus helping in the training of a whole army of cadres and employees for the revolution, and in further improvement of the entire people's educational background by quasi-formal methods and forms of teaching.

The greatest weakness probably lies in the fact that for a long time nonformal approaches to adult education have been neglected, as well as informal education. As a consequence of this neglect it has been very difficult in recent years to organise the education of the working people into a widespread mass movement. Currently, with the active assistance provided by UNESCO and through the exchange of experiences with friendly countries, the lifelong adult education workers in Vietnam are doing their best to rectify this error.

Thus, the attempt is being made on the one hand to bring into full play the strengths of quasi-formal educational methods in order to raise the scientific and technological standards of the cadres, employees and young people. On the other hand, the attempt is also being made to develop nonformal and informal educational approaches for the working people in order to improve their understanding of the living environment and of production, thereby ensuring all the people may take an active part in economic development, improvement of living conditions, and in the successful socialist construction of the country as a whole.